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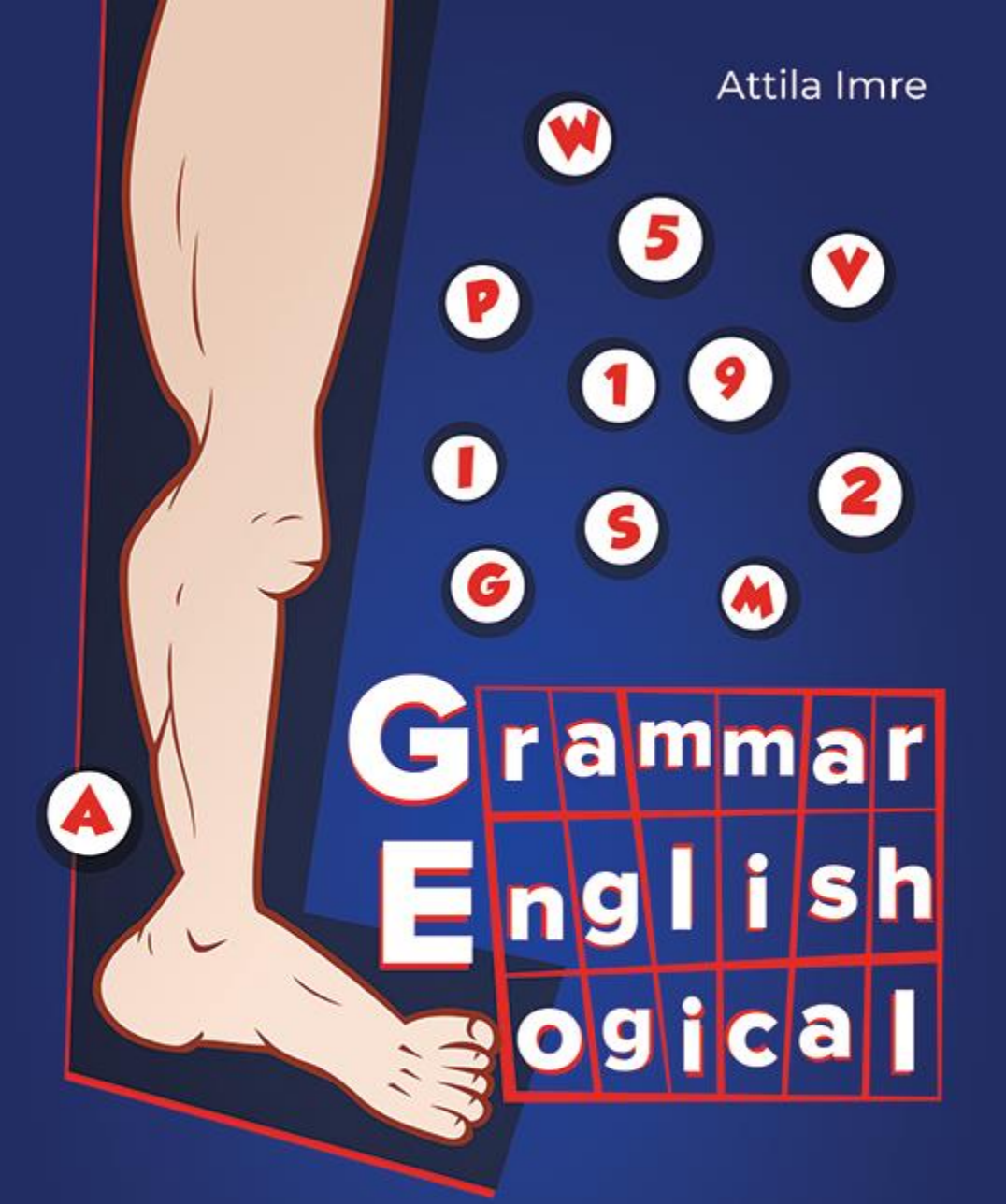

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Attila Imre · A LOGICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

ATTILA IMRE

A LOGICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Universitatea
Transilvania
din Brașov

BRAȘOV, 2019

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To Márta, Tamás and Balázs, who always stand by me.

FOREWORD

Referring to the inconsistencies in the structural organization of natural languages, Sapir (in *Language*, 1921, 39) concluded tersely that "all grammars leak". This view can arguably be extended from language itself to all the books about language: in their pages, the authors would embark upon the meticulous task of painting still-lifes of something that is in a perpetual flux. So, considering that descriptions of language are inherently difficult undertakings likely to yield limited results, one may wonder what justifies this new endeavour to map the grammar of English, and whether it can, with good reason, claim to go (boldly or not) "where no one has gone before".

Indeed, while one may think, a priori, that this book, too, is aimed at bringing some order into the linguistic chaos, its title seems to suggest that there may be no real chaos in the first place and that, despite the varying amounts of apprehension lurking in the EL classrooms, grammar is something that learners can not only wrap their heads around, but also come to enjoy.

The philosophy underpinning this book is that, in essence, grammar skills are the cornerstone of effective language use: whilst they enable us to encode and decode a tremendous variety of messages exchanged in different communicative situations, they also provide the solid ground on which we can further develop the other components of our communicative competence. In light of this alone, an epistemic venture like the one instantiated by this work is not only justifiable, but also desirable.

In designing the structure of *A Logical English Grammar*, its author has been able to capitalize on his significant teacher-cum-translator experience. This allowed him to locate the problem areas that non-native learners of English, particularly Hungarian and Romanian, usually come up against in the process of internalizing the grammar of a language different, on so many levels, from their own.

For conspicuous reasons, the author of the present book lays no claim to originality as far as the subject-matter is concerned. But this work's consolidatory value lies in the clear perspective it offers on how English grammar works; it is a perspective derived from the critical interpretation and correlation of data originating from a wide array of sources, performed in the hope that it would ultimately allow the learners to connect the dots between form, meaning, and usage, affording them a better understanding of where particular discrete features fit into the greater scheme of the English language.

As announced in the author's Introduction, the present volume is the first in a projected series dedicated to pivotal topics in the English grammar. This explains the exclusive focus on the English verb system – a stumbling block for the non-native learner – as well as on logical categories and structures (i.e., complex verb phrases, certain types of sentence, idiomatic expressions) in which the verb plays a leading part. Working within an externalist paradigm, where language is viewed as a patterned activity with recognizable underlying features, the book delves into issues that are essential to grasping the complexities of the English verb system: they relate to the typology, morphology and function of verbs, to verb categories such as tense, voice and mood, to the syntactic behaviour of verbs in wider contexts, i.e. conditional and hypothetical structures and, from here, the author ventures into the pragma-linguistic quicksands of English modal verbs considered in close connection to the logico-philosophical category of modality. These matters are covered extensively and in detail, with a fair amount of attention paid to the distribution of the various forms that verbs may take in different communicative situations, and across

different language registers (e.g. standard, non-standard), pragmatic functions, and sometimes even diatopic varieties of English.

Generally speaking, one point of difficulty in the description of English for the benefit of non-native learners resides in the high number of syncretic forms that it possesses: whilst economical for production, the ability of many English language items to perform multiple functions (e.g., past tense forms with present time reference in the subjunctive, present tense forms with past or future time reference, the same modal auxiliary put to different communicative uses, etc.) may impede upon comprehension, especially when the concern for linguistic minutiae prevails over the appeal to logic. But appealing to logic in this case involves an awareness of the target group's profile, including its ability to cope with conceptual and terminological issues that have only few or no equivalents in their L1. Moreover, for a learner wading through the informational content of a grammar book, metalanguage is often daunting, if not altogether off-putting.

With this in mind, the author has taken steps to circumvent the potential for confusion on the learners' part by adopting a form–use–context approach, by conflating interrelated categories and features like tense and aspect, inherent meaning and *Aktionsart*, and by using a numbering system for tense forms and tempo-aspectual verb phrases, which helps keeping the use of complicated metalinguistic labels to a minimum, while foregrounding the concepts that they stand for. And this is no small feat, considering the wealth of resources that the writer of this book has tapped into. The predominantly descriptive manner of approach to the subject matter in hand is punctuated by references to what typically is or is not done in the English language, always accompanied by explanations, examples and, occasionally, by critical evaluations of the different treatments (and associated terminologies) that a particular topic has received in the specialist literature. Whether he favours one point of view or another, the author manages to connect the readers to all the relevant resources by means of an unobtrusive system of in-text and footnote citations, which adds to – rather than disrupts – the information flow. Equally useful is the use of cross-references pointing the reader to relevant or more detailed information provided elsewhere in the book, as well as the insertion of tables providing synoptic views of topics approached in different (sub)sections of the book.

Last but not least, it is noteworthy and commendable that the complex and (for some) puzzling picture of the English language is painted by a sympathetic teacher constantly aware of the plight that some EL learners may find themselves in; this is why he chooses to discuss such serious, scholarly matters in a relaxed, rather casual, and therefore highly accessible tone.

Marinela BURADA
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01. 02. 2019.

Attila IMRE

INTRODUCTION

There is a tremendous difference between studying English **language** and **grammar**; while the language is both 'trendy' and 'entertaining' for many (being often associated with Hollywood productions), grammar is but a nuisance, presenting many years of real challenge with endless rules that few seem to understand. As a result, grammar is labelled as 'stupid' or a 'waste of time', and few teachers can change this attitude,[1] as "real understanding takes time" (75:18), and "over-simplified rules" distort usage, without reflecting "the whole truth" and "remain firmly embedded" (94:22–23).

This is definitely not something we would like to achieve with the present book. Being conscious of the negative criticism regarding English grammar, such as 'difficult', 'full of exceptions' or 'illogical' (cf. 75:178), we would like to offer a logical perspective of a few of its building blocks, by collecting descriptions and explanations and filtering them in such a way as to show how connected they are, leading to a "largely regular" language (75:30), even if its descriptions are often problematic and illogical.

We firmly believe that "the big, underlying, problems of English are discoverable, not impossible to understand and above all, not intimidating but fun to explore" (75:13) together with Michael Lewis, whose thought-provoking grammar – although one of the best in the field – was not (apart from one instance) mentioned in any of the sources we came across during more than two decades of dealing with English grammar.

Native speakers can utter more than a hundred words a minute, during which they may communicate around thirty messages (75:29), which is why we are optimistic enough to state that – in principle – anybody can learn any foreign language, but in our competence-oriented world the time allotted for it is not negligible. We tend to think that the road to effective language use leads through grammar, which may serve as a foundation for extending our knowledge later, even in a self-study form.

Practice has already demonstrated that irrespective of the number of acquired words, there is no guarantee we can use them properly unless completed with grammar, which may sound disappointing for many. What is grammar then, and how much do we need of it in order to use it effectively in communication? Terms such as 'basic', 'intermediate' and 'advanced' represent various levels of "compromise" between "accuracy and accessibility" (75:8). Whatever the level, compound and complex sentences are needed, with well-arranged items. These are either individual words or combinations of them, involving the following areas:

- **lexicology**, dealing with the study of words (cf. 29:8);
- **morphology**, dealing with grammatical classes, groups and forms of words and inflections[2] (cf. 29:8, 48:60);
- **syntax**, dealing with relationships between the words in combination, arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences[3] (cf. 48:60);
- **semantics**, dealing with the study of meaning (cf. 29:8).

[1] Michael Lewis states that "[i]n many ways language teachers are the worst possible people to teach languages" (75:15), which may be one of the reasons why his book is hardly mentioned in any of 'mainstream' grammar books.

[2] https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/morphology, 29. 04. 2017.

[3] https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/syntax, 29. 04. 2017.

Although there are other grammar areas and interpretations (e.g. psycholinguistics, phonetics, cognitive or generative grammar, etc.), these four constitute that part of grammar we have used to describe **forms**, **functions** and **meanings**. While certain topics cannot be described without combining more grammar areas (cf. morphosyntax, as "morphological devices are greatly conditioned by syntactical arrangements", see 48:60), it has become clear that "language comes first, the descriptions or rules later" (75:177) and language "is not about forms, but about meaning" (75:179), which is reflected in effective communication, entailing that concepts of "right" and "wrong" (75:23) in language description should be replaced by 'less' and 'more' suitable, albeit gruesome to language examination centres.

While searching for similarities in various grammatical structures (e.g. tenses), it is meaning that adds different shades to different structures in order to select the most suitable one in a particular situation; thus we have tried to bring under the same roof all the necessary information needed to explain a specific case.

This way we have come to realise that grammar 'as such' is non-existent, but there are interpretations of grammar with supporting examples. Thus the present book is the intended first volume of 'a' grammar we are comfortable with, dealing with the following chapters:

1. 'a' logical English verb system, which includes:
    - the strong verb of existence;
    - auxiliary verbs;
    - weak verbs;
    - modal verbs.

These verbs serve as the core building blocks of sentences leading to the following chapters:

2. 'a' logical English tense system;
3. passive voice;
4. mood;
5. conditional sentences;
6. hypothetical constructions;
7. the 'never-ending' modality and modal verbs.

However, clear-cut boundaries between them are difficult to establish, which is best exemplified with the modal verb, pervading the previous chapters, but we can also mention reported speech, exemplified in some of the chapters. The book ends with an Appendix section, followed by References and Index.

Although we would have liked to include further chapters (e.g. 'the other half' of morphology, such as the verbal phrase and noun phrase),[4] they are left for further possible volumes. To make matters worse, we list what else is **not** included:

- drilling exercises (a separate volume is needed);
- comparing English structures with other languages (beyond the range of book reflected in the title);
- comparative translation, even if we consider translation as one of the most authentic ways to test our knowledge; the simple reason is that we opted for a monolingual book.

[4] These include infinitive, participle, gerund constructions, as well as nouns, determiners (articles, pronouns, adjectives, etc.).

Having this in mind, certain questions arise: why write 'another' English grammar book? Are published books not effective enough? We believe that different interpretations cast different lights upon the same thing, similarly to renewed translations of original works, in our case, language.

The moot point is whether it is possible to describe a **logical** English grammar, but the answer lies with the reader. Our efforts are best tested with those who open the book and find it engaging enough to see whether the title fits the contents or not. We have given it a try, having been encouraged by the feed-back of more than a thousand present and former pupils and students since 1991, many of whom expected to understand English grammar better than by studying it alone. This has been a constant challenge for us, trying to offer authentic explanations.

Yet, this book is less authentic than ever in the sense that we have browsed through more than 30,000 pages of English grammar in books, articles and dictionaries, paying special attention to the selection of relevant bibliography in the field. Thus we have selected the most authoritative sources published in the UK and USA and added the most relevant publications we could find from a non-native perspective in Romania and Hungary to highlight some features native writers may not be aware of.

Although we have tried to be as accurate as possible, not all references are present in all the chapters (to avoid repetition and because some grammar issues are already considered **facts**, being impossible to track the 'original'), but each chapter ends with specific references; these references are numbered so as not to completely destroy the reading experience.

As such, we cannot claim this book to be an 'original' work, let alone the fact that it would be more than bold to claim a fully original interpretation of grammar, shaped by many authors over the centuries and taken over by others without mentioning the source explicitly. The most we can state is that our primary concern was to make our interpretation of grammar as clear as possible (hence 'logical'), and should the present work have any original merit, then it is connected to **how** the information is presented and the **accompanying examples** to support the theory.

Nevertheless, this is not an 'ultimate' answer to the grammar issues presented, but a hope that a few of them will be dispersed at least to some of the readers. This is why we accept that many references are mentioned throughout the book, but we intended to offer a synthesis of certain grammar areas, constantly supported by authoritative sources, knowing that "information is only as valuable as its source".[5] While striving for explanations, a lot of stimulation was due to Wittgenstein's words:

> Everything that can be thought at all can be thought clearly.
> Everything that can be put into words can be put clearly. (*Tractatus*, 4.116)

We should also answer a habitual question: who are the potential target readers? The honest answer is that we do not know that yet. The explanation is simple: when we started to write the book, the target readers were students wishing to approach grammar 'from scratch'; later on advanced students of English and fellow linguists were also considered, until the point we felt that 'everything is connected to everything but nobody understands why and how'; at that stage we struggled hard to simplify it, until we felt it to be comprehensible. Upon finishing the book, we tend to think that it is intended for intermediate and advanced students alike, including those who wish to understand many whys while committing grammar mistakes before the language exam. Ultimately, it might help native and non-

[5] Cf. Dan Brown, *Angels and Demons*, Pocket Books, New York, 2000:17.

native English teachers realise which areas of grammar typically cause problems for non-native students.

On the one hand we promise a gradual introduction, but on the other hand we rely on a certain preliminary cultural knowledge on the part of the unsuspecting potential readers, which is outside the typical range of grammar proper, such as:

- thrillers (especially John Doe and Jane Doe), who might be referred to as *the Does*;
- sci-fi masterpieces (e.g. *Star Wars*, especially Luke and Master Yoda);
- cartoons, such as *Shrek* or *Shrek the Halls*;
- certain songs and lyrics (by Pink Floyd, Rednex, The Clash or Phil Collins)

While drafting the book, we were inclined to use UK (British) English in theoretical descriptions, except for the actual words in quotes (e.g. *judgment*) or illustrative examples (e.g. *movie*).

Thus we try to offer a possibly new view on the 'good old' English grammar, heavily relying on certain grammar books that influenced our way of seeing grammar, hopefully leading to a more logical interpretation, shaped by the reality of the non-native speakers' approach in trying to understand the differences between mother tongue and English (criticism welcome).

ABBREVIATIONS, SIGNS AND SYMBOLS

Common symbols

*	incorrect
/	choice
~	(more or less) similar meaning
®	both a regular and an irregular verb (e.g. *learn*)
†	obsolete form

Specific symbols used in this book

①	Present Simple
②	Present Continuous
③	Present Perfect Simple
④	Present Perfect Continuous
⑤	Past Simple
⑥	Past Continuous
⑦	Past Perfect Simple
⑧	Past Perfect Continuous
⑨	Future Simple
⑩	Future Continuous
⑪	Future Perfect Simple
⑫	Future Perfect Continuous
⑬	Going to Future
Ⓐ	auxiliary verb
Ⓖ	gerund
Ⓘ	infinitive
Ⓜ	modal verb
Ⓟ	participle
Ⓢ	strong verb
Ⓥ	verb
Ⓦ	weak verb

One of the innovations of this book is that we have numbered the English tenses in a way we consider logical, and we will refer to them with either their full name or these circled digits and numbers throughout the book.

The reason for using circled digits and numbers for the English tenses is that their names are too long when using them in explanations or contrastive examples, and they cannot be translated properly. For instance, Present Perfect Simple is a tense with both present and past reference, knowing that 'Perfect' mostly means past / finished. While this sounds logical in English, there are languages, in which this may sound odd, as a grammatical tense can refer to either past or present.

Common abbreviations and acronyms

Acc.	Accusative	OC	Object Complement
AE	American English	P	Predicate
AV	Active Voice	PV	passive voice
BE	British English	S	Subject
DO	Direct Object	SC	Subject Complement
IO	Indirect Object	sg	something
Nom.	Nominative	sy	somebody
O	Object		

1. A LOGICAL ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

The fact that grammars are constantly being revised should be considered a natural process and one of the primary concerns of grammarians. The aim of this chapter is to reconsider the approach to the English verb system, which may be a starting point for English grammars; we take into account grammars published by native (mostly British) and non-native (mostly Romanian and Hungarian) grammarians, striving for a hopefully more logical approach. We may encounter theoretical, practical or systematic descriptions of English grammar, yet we would like to offer a different perspective to it, naturally, through the filter of a non-native speaker.

1.1. Introduction

Verbs are so common in language use that they hardly need any introduction. Nevertheless, we offer a definition, according to which they denote actions, activities, states, events, appearance, attitudes, processes, changes (modifications of characteristics, transformations) or existence.[1] Being the second largest class of words, their categorisation may present some difficulty, as detailed in the following.

The starting point for studying English grammar may be the mapping of all verb types, enabling speakers to produce comprehensible utterances. Once we present all possible verb types, it may then spare us a lot of subsequent explanation, and its real advantage lies in offering a logical view upon their possible combinations to form sentences. However, we are quite aware of the difficulty, explained below:

> The system of the English verb is rightly considered to be the most complex grammatical structure of the language. The most troublesome problems are, indeed, concentrated in the area of the finite verb, and include, in particular, questions tense, aspect and modal auxiliary usage. This seems to be an area of grammar which has always gained the greatest interest in language learning. We can say with little fear of exaggeration that learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language. (48:99)

Although this may sound discouraging, completed with a view that verbs are "vexing" (55:79), there are more promising approaches. For instance, we fully agree with Lewis, who states that the basic English verb structure "is not particularly complicated" and it is not "full of exceptions" either (75:7), which is supported by the fact that native speakers of any language, including English, can express themselves via language both fluently and effortlessly. The only logical explanation may be that a small number of so-called "primary distinctions" (75:27) have to be traced, which may reveal how English verbs are divided into categories, their possible combinations and the meanings they may have inherently, combined with other verbs or other sentence constituents.

[1] 37:301, 17:130.

The variety they manifest in these ways is immense, starting from common, everyday use to highly specific use (cf. metaphors, specialized terminology, humour, slang, etc.). Experience shows that verbs are worth considering, at least focusing on:

- verb **form**, analysing their inner structure, connected to **lexicology**;
- verb **position** in a **phrase**, connected to **morphology**, and their interaction with other verbs, leading to **functional** differences;
- verb position in a **sentence**, connected to **syntax**, and interaction with other grammatical categories (e.g. transitive verbs);
- **inherent meaning**(s), connected to **semantics**, and meanings derived from interaction with other grammatical categories.

It is natural that verbs are divided into different categories, but the problem is that in the majority of cases it is not specified which part of grammar this is based on.

In the following we would like to offer a categorisation of English verbs, highlighting the part of grammar which deals with them under these labels. Thus classifying verbs is of utmost importance, as they express several grammatical categories, and "within the structure of language, one cannot remain isolated on one level of analysis" (28:21). This explains why grammar often describes verbs focusing on their forms, functions, meanings and their possible combinations simultaneously, making it difficult to distinguish which aspect is primarily taken into account. This is often deduced from the way certain verbs are referred to, such as **simple** verb (lexicology, form) or **inchoative** verb (semantics, meaning).

1.2. Inherent structure

The majority of grammars start characterising verbs by stating that they are either **simple** or **complex**, both terms referring to their constituting structure. Within this category we can differentiate the following verb types:

1. **one-word verbs**, which may be simple (*enjoy*), derivative (*discover*), or compound (*broadcast*).
2. **multi-word** (complex) verbs, which are combinations of verbs and one or more adverbs and prepositions, leading to phrasal verbs (*come back* – verb and adverbial particle), prepositional verbs (*comment on* – verb and preposition) and phrasal-prepositional verbs (*put up with, look forward to*); the adverbial particle may not alter the 'basic' sense of the verb, but it may also partially or fully change its sense, offering it a new, special (idiomatic) meaning. The preposition is often considered to be 'obligatory' or 'compulsory' after the verb (*look for, rely on*).
3. **verbal phrases** are combinations of verbs with grammatical categories other than mentioned above (*carry the day, take / have a walk*); although the term is ambiguous, as it typically refers to non-predicative or non-finite verb forms (infinitive, gerund or participle), it seems justified to be mentioned here as well.

Both phrasal verbs and verbal phrases have to be learnt, as their meaning may be puzzling. Although their use is informal, they are widely used in oral communication as well as in the press.

Phrasal verbs are considered to be common in informal English, and one phrasal verb may have several different meanings, in which case disambiguation is only possible from the context (e.g. *take on* 1. employing someone; 2. accepting responsibility; etc.); phrasal verbs may be further sub-divided into four categories:

1. transitive phrasal verbs with one inseparable particle (*go over something, do without something*);
2. transitive phrasal verbs with one separable particle (*give up something or give something up*);
3. intransitive phrasal verbs with one particle (*get away, wear off*);
4. phrasal verbs with two particles (phrasal-prepositional verbs).

We should also mention that phrasals may also include verbs followed by the infinitive, gerund *(remember to wash / washing*) or an adjective. Phrasal and prepositional verbs may be differentiated by considering at least three criteria (38:264–265):

1. the adverb tends to be stressed, while the preposition does not;
2. the preposition must precede the object in case of transitive variants;
3. an adverb may be inserted between the verb and preposition (*think **clearly** of something*).

The morphological structure of verbs also makes it necessary to discuss how they are formed. **Verb formation** (derivation, conjugation, composition, cf. the types of one-word verbs) deals with the following options:

1. **affixation** of verbs may result in:
2. verbs with **prefix** (***re**name, **over**run*); notable prefixes are the 'negative' ones (***dis**locate, **il**logical*);
3. verbs with **suffix** (*strength**en**, modi**fy***);
4. **shortening** or clipping: *(de)fend, photo(graph)*;
5. **back-formation**, which is a special type of shortening (typically the end of a job-related noun): *edit(or), keep(er)*;
6. **conversion**, through which a different grammatical category functions as a verb (*to sir somebody, to google*); this change of grammatical category may be referred to as **modulation** (especially in Translation Studies);
7. **compound** verbs (blackmail, whitewash);
8. **portmanteau** words, a special type of composition / mixture / blend of two verbs: (***chillax** > chill, relax*; ***chortle** > chuckle, snort* – coined by Lewis Carroll);
9. **vowel gradation** (ablaut, apophony), by which a vowel change results in a grammatical change; in our case, a present form may turn past (*r**u**n – r**a**n, dr**i**nk – dr**a**nk – dr**u**nk*);
10. **onomatopoeia** verbs (imitating sounds): *buzz, hiccup*;
11. **new** verbs (*xerox, google*), which are only regular verbs; regular verbs are discussed within formal classification (section 1.4.1.).

The list above suggests that there are many possibilities for creating verbs, although some categories are not really productive (e.g. portmanteau words), but on the other hand further options may be considered, such as contracted or abbreviated verbs forms (***'d*** for *woul**d*** or *ha**d***, shortened forms of the verb *be*). The table below summarises this section:

one-word verb	simple	*marry*
	derivative	*return*
	compound	*broadcast*
multi-word verb	phrasal	*come back*
	prepositional	*comment on*
	phrasal-prepositional	*put up with*

Table 1. Inherent structure of verbs (Lexicology)

After having presented the verbs based on their inherent structure, it is worth dealing with their inherent meaning, followed by their formal and functional classification. These are important when we wish to produce sentences referring to person, number and aspect in various tenses and moods, detailed later.

1.3. Inherent meaning

We have mentioned in the previous section that adverbs or prepositions attached to verbs may completely change the meaning of the verb (*give up ~ abandon*). Hence it is worth categorising verbs based on their meaning (belonging to semantics).

Verb meaning is typically important when tenses are formed, as some verbs are semantically restricted. The majority of terms refer to the differentiation of verbs based on their (im)possibility to form progressive, durative (75:160) or continuous aspect,[2] but pragmatic aspects may be also considered:

1. **static** (or state, stative, non-durative, non-progressive) verbs normally have no progressive aspect, so they cannot be used in continuous tenses; they typically refer to a "single event" (38:63): *arrest, ban, be able, be clever, break, bring, drop, have a look, know, know how, snap*;
   - however, when they refer to a "set of repeated events, habits" (38:63), they may be used in continuous tenses (for further details see 2.2.);
2. **time-point** (point-time or momentaneous) verbs: *blink, burst, catch, clasp, clutch, drop, grasp, hit, hop, jump, lie down, nod, push, reach, run out, seize, sit down, snatch, stand up, strike, throw (away)*;
3. **aspective** verbs (22:291), encapsulating repetition: *continue, go (on), keep (on), used (to)*, or some start or end verbs exemplified below;
4. **start, inchoative** (63:195) or ingressive (22:292) verbs refer to the start of an action: *begin, commence, get* (probably the most common), *start, set about*;
5. **end,** egressive (22:292) verbs focus on the end of an action: *cease, complete, conclude, end, finish, give up, have done with, leave off, stop, terminate*;
6. **progressive** (dynamic or durative,) verbs can be used to form continuous tenses: *work, sleep, drink*;
7. **double-aspect** verbs (both durative and non-durative) tend to be context dependent: *hang (hung, hung)* versus *hang (hanged, hanged); learn (study / find out)*; *pass (time / exam)*;
8. **change of state** (63:231) or **process** (40:197) verbs may have either non-durative (point-time) or durative (changes over a longer period of time) use: *become, blush, come, fall, go, get, grow, make (somebody red), redden, run, turn (~ blue, ~ sentimental, ~ yellow).*
   - some of them constitute fixed phrases: *come right / true, fall ill, go mad, run wild, turn nasty, wear thin*, presenting a real challenge when translating them into a foreign language.
9. **performative** (or declarative) verbs, such as *apologize, declare, demand, forbid, forgive, promise, pronounce, recommend, state, swear, thank, threaten*.

Semantically viewed, there are further possibilities to categorise verbs:

1. **impersonal** (unipersonal) verbs typically refer to weather conditions: *dew, drizzle, freeze, hail, lighten, rain, sleet, snow, thunder*;

[2] Cf. 11:448–449 or 22:346–348 for "lexical" aspect.

2. **reporting** verbs (63:191) are connected to reported speech, which are – by and large – possible synonyms for *say, tell,* and *ask*, but they also express more than that (e.g. *accept, confirm, deny, hint at, suspect*);
3. **semantically depleted** verbs (63:197): *be, come, do, go, make, say, take, tell*;
4. **semantically rich** verbs (63:211), often connected to reporting verbs: *boast, rattle, threaten*;
5. **subjunctive** verbs: *demand, insist, recommend, suggest*; these can contribute to the subjunctive mood, which is a very formal, rather limited way of expression.

The table below summarises this section:

static	*have*	impersonal	*hail*
dynamic	*grow*	reporting	*confirm*
aspective	*continue*	semantically depleted	*make*
start	*begin*	semantically rich	*threaten*
end	*cease*	subjunctive	*suggest*
process	*go mad*		
durative	*live*		
non-durative	*break*		
time-point	*hit*		
change of state	*blush*		
performative	*thank*		

Table 2. Verb meanings

1.4. Formal classification

The previous section discussed the possible inherent structures of verbs, inspecting how they are constituted or formed. However, the term form seems to be much more rooted in a different sense, namely the 'basic dictionary' forms, often referred to as **formal classification**.

Formal classification is often puzzling, as different grammar books mention three to five categories (or form-types), although the possible verb forms may range from a minimum of three and up to eight. These forms are the following:

I. the **base** form (*speak, invest*), which is also called the first form (I.), the **dictionary** form, the **infinitive** or **Present Simple** form; however, this form is also used in the imperative and present subjunctive mood and after modal verbs (all detailed later);

a) a further remark is that there is a short or bare infinitive form, which formally coincides with the Present Simple (*speak, invest*, not considering the third person singular with *-(e)s* ending), the imperative (*Speak! Invest!*) and present subjunctive mood (*I insist that you speak now.*); central modal verbs are only followed by short infinitive verb forms (*You may speak now.*);

b) when the base form is headed by *to*, it is referred to as the long infinitive (*to speak, to invest*);

c) last but not least, we should mention that even if it is called (not very logically) the **Present Simple** form, its meaning is not always 'present' time, e.g. when headed by a modal verb:
*She could **say 'NO'** when she was only 3 months old.*

Illustration 1. She could say 'NO'

d) Lewis argues convincingly that the **basic** form is "easier for students than the traditional terms", which may be applied for the present simple, infinitive and imperative structures as well (75:68), but he also admits that "the concept of the base form is … not particularly useful in English" as it may refer to the infinitive, the imperative, and the present simple (75:61); hence, to put it simply, we would like to refer to it as the **I.** form throughout this book.

II. the **Past (Simple)** form, also known as the **second** form, the **preterite** or the verb in *-ed* form (*spoke, invested*);

a) although it is called the **Past** form, its meaning is not always 'past'; an important counterexample is a conditional construction:
*If I **didn't understand** this, I would set the book on fire.*

b) this is a very serious argument for not referring to it as the past form; thus, in the following we would like to refer to it as the **II.** form;

III. the **Past Participle** form, also known as the **third** form, the 'perfect' form or the verb in *-en* or *-ed* form (*spok**en**, invest**ed***);

a) it is used in Perfect tenses (even if is connected to aspect and not tense, cf. 75:75), passive voice or various participle constructions (*spoken word*);

b) these terms are rather troublesome (even scary for language learners), not to mention that the Past Simple and Past Participle forms are often identical, although grammatically different;

c) however, it is important to distinguish them, so we would like to refer to the past participle as the **III.** form.

At this stage, skilled language users might have already identified these three forms as the irregular verbs, although it is important to notice two things:

1. **irregular** verbs do not always have three distinguishable forms, and any combination is possible: any two or all three forms may overlap or be completely different (see section 1.4.2.);
2. **regular** verbs, technically speaking, also have I., II. and III. forms, even if the II. and III. forms are 'formally' identical and differ from the I. form only by the *-(e)d* ending.

Further options for verb forms are:

IV. the *-(e)s* form, which refers to the third person singular verb form in Present tenses:
*Shrek **is** sleeping.*

*Huckleberry Finn never **speaks** Finnish.*
*Jane Doe **has** been found.*

V. the *-ing* (Present Participle) form (*speak**ing**, invest**ing***), which is used in Continuous / Progressive tenses or indefinite / present participle constructions.

The list above logically implies that each verb should have five forms:
do – did – done – does – doing

However, some grammar books do not consider the fourth form as a separate one, but a variant of the base (I.) form. Furthermore, the I. form may have as many as four variants for the existential verb (*be, am, are, is*), and the II. or III. form may split into two for various reasons (*was / were; burnt / burned*).

Consequently, the minimum number of verb forms is three (*put, puts, putting*) and the maximum is eight (*be, am, are, is, was, were, been, being*), which is the case of only one verb, referred to as the 'existential' or 'auxiliary' *be*.

Some grammar books discuss specific pronunciation (*say, said, said*) and spelling rules (*make, made, made; put, putting; label, labelled*), differences between the spelling and pronunciation of verb and noun (*bathe* and *bath*), verbs and adjectives (*lose* and *loose*) or verbs with different forms (notably for the *-s* and *-ing* endings).

At syntactical level, having in mind sentence-function and meaning, these verbs may be called either **notional**, **principal**, **finite** and **tensed** (able to express tenses by themselves, forms I., II. and IV.), or **non-notional, non-principal, non-finite** and **non-tensed** verbs (unable to express tenses by themselves, forms III. and V.).

Traditionally, the first three forms are called **dictionary** forms. In case the second and third verb forms coincide and both end in *-(e)d*, then we talk about **regular** verbs, which is the case of the overwhelming majority of English verbs, including the new ones, which can only be regular.

If either the past (simple) or the past participle form of the same verb is different than *-ed*, we are faced with irregular verbs, which – although certain formation patterns may be observed – are problematic to learn, as the second and third form cannot be derived from the first one, detailed in the following.

1.4.1. Regular verbs

Within formal classification, we should start with the **regular** verbs, as – to the great relief on non-native English speakers – almost all English verbs belong to this type. Their forms are easy to learn, as the second and third forms heavily rely on the first (base) form. These are obtained by adding an *-ed* (*play, play**ed**, play**ed***) at the end of the first form; in case the base verb form ends in *e*, only a *-d* is necessary (*hire, hire**d**, hire**d***).

The category of regular verbs is constantly on the rise, due to two reasons: first, it is a productive category for all new verbs (*xerox, xeroxed*), and secondly, some irregular verbs tend to become regular ones (*show, showed, shown / showed*).

1.4.2. Irregular verbs

Irregular verbs make extensive use of the non-native speakers' memory, as their second and third form cannot be deduced or predicted from the first one. Sadly, they need a lot of time and practice to be learnt, but this cannot be avoided, as many of them belong to the core English vocabulary.

The optimistic approach to irregular verbs is to remember that only a few hundred ones of all English verbs are irregular, which can be further reduced based on their frequency, reaching to a little more than a hundred items, while the rest belongs to dictionaries (cf.

75:10). However, the frequent ones (with three distinctive forms completed with their meaning) still remain, with different procedures to memorize them. The most common is to further categorise them by establishing patterns, focusing on their three possible forms, which we refer to as I., II. and III. forms, detailed in the following tables.

We differentiate sixteen pattern groups (**G**), forming a 'shortlist' of 150 most frequent verbs mentioned in various sources. The frequency column figures (marked with **Fr**.) are taken from a very profound article and its accompanying tables (64:5–22). The last (empty) enables the students to add one or more possible translations. In case an irregular verb is also used as a regular verb, it is listed in a group with the 'registered trademark' symbol (®).

Obviously, group **G1** is the easiest to learn, as all three forms are identical, fourteen verbs being shortlisted in this category:

G1	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
1	*burst*	*burst*	*burst*	104	
2	*cast*	*cast*	*cast*	83	
3	*cut*	*cut*	*cut*	48	
4	*hit*	*hit*	*hit*	74	
5	*hurt*	*hurt*	*hurt*	96	
6	*let*	*let*	*let*	28	
7	*put*	*put*	*put*	20	
8	*set*	*set*	*set*	30	
9	*shut*	*shut*	*shut*	93	
10	*slit*	*slit*	*slit*	149	
11	*split*	*split*	*split*	111	
12	*spread*	*spread*	*spread*	77	
13	*thrust*	*thrust*	*thrust*	109	
14	*upset*	*upset*	*upset*		

Table 3. The G1 group

The previous list may be extended with nine more irregular verbs of identical forms, but these already form group **G1®**, as they have regular variants as well. *Cost* may have regular forms as well, in which case its basic meaning is altered:

G1®	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
15	*bet*	*bet*	*bet*	132	
16	*broadcast*	*broadcast*	*broadcast*		
17	*cost*	*cost**	*cost**	79	
18	*fit*	*fit*	*fit*		
19	*forecast*	*forecast*	*forecast*		
20	*knit*	*knit*	*knit*		
21	*quit*	*quit*	*quit*	129	
22	*shed*	*shed*	*shed*	133	
23	*wet*	*wet*	*wet*	142	

Table 4. The G1® group

Three verbs form group **G2^**, where the circumflex accent (^) refers to the fact that the first and third forms coincide:

G2^	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
24	*become*	*became*	*become*	16	
25	*come*	*came*	*come*	8	
26	*run*	*ran*	*run*	32	

Table 5. The G2^ group

Group **G2D** is rather numerous with twenty entries, characterised by coinciding forms (II. and III.), ending in *-d*. Some verbs manifest other noteworthy characteristics in this group:

- *have* has a somewhat irregular *-s* form, which is of highly importance, as this is one of the major auxiliary verbs discussed in a separate section;
- *read* seemingly belongs to group **G1**, but the pronunciation of the II. and III. form makes it obvious that it is safer to display it here;
- finally, the difference between *say* and *tell* may prove useful, as beginners often find it difficult to differentiate them. Advanced users know that stock phrases with these two verbs may not always follow the rule stated here (e.g. *tell jokes*):

G2D	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
27	*bind*	*boun**d***	*boun**d***	82	
28	*bleed*	*ble**d***	*ble**d***	136	
29	*feed*	*fe**d***	*fe**d***	71	
30	*find*	*foun**d***	*foun**d***	13	
31	*grind*	*groun**d***	*groun**d***	123	
32	*have / has*	*ha**d***	*ha**d***	2	
33	*hear*	*hear**d***	*hear**d***	27	
34	*hold*	*held*	*held*	24	
35	*lay*	*lai**d***	*lai**d***	60	
36	*lead*	*le**d***	*le**d***	37	
37	*make*	*ma**d**e*	*ma**d**e*	5	
38	*mislead*	*misle**d***	*misle**d***		
39	*pay*	*pai**d***	*pai**d***	33	
40	*read*	*rea**d****	*rea**d****	38	
41	*say (sg to sy)*	*sai**d***	*sai**d***	4	
42	*sell*	*sol**d***	*sol**d***	61	
43	*slide*	*sli**d***	*sli**d**(**d**en)*	105	
44	*stand*	*stoo**d***	*stoo**d***	26	
45	*tell (sy sg)*	*tol**d***	*tol**d***	15	
46	*understand*	*un**d**erstoo**d***	*un**d**erstoo**d***	44	

Table 6. The G2D group

Group **G2D®** comes to complete the previous one, with the possibility to use these verbs as regular ones:

G2D®	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
47	*speed*	*sped*	*sped*	124	
48	*wind*	*woun**d***	*woun**d***	113	

Table 7. The G2D® group

The next ‘group’, **G2EN**, is made up of one single irregular verb, but it is important to highlight its irregularity, resembling the **G3EN** group, except for the fact that the first two forms coincide:

G2EN	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
49	*beat*	*beat*	*beat**en***	80	

Table 8. The G2EN group

Group **G2GHT** is typically referred to as the *-ght* group, although it might as well be called the *-ught* group, as all the II. and III. forms end this way; moreover, *-ught* is preceded by only two vocals: *a* or *o*, as shown below:

G2GHT	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
50	*bring*	*bro**ught***	*bro**ught***	21	
51	*buy*	*bo**ught***	*bo**ught***	51	
52	*catch*	*ca**ught***	*ca**ught***	56	
53	*fight*	*fo**ught***	*fo**ught***	62	
54	*teach*	*ta**ught***	*ta**ught***	64	
55	*think*	*tho**ught***	*tho**ught***	14	

Table 9. The G2GHT group

Ten verbs form group **G2iUU**, where the first vowel of the I. form is *i*, which is turned to vowel *u* in the II. and III. forms. A visible 'misfit' is *win*, where the II. and III. forms are pronounced as if the vowel were a *u*. Another interesting member is *hang*, which has a regular variant as well (with a completely different meaning):

G2iUU	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
56	*d**i**g*	*d**u**g*	*d**u**g*	107	
57	*fl**i**ng*	*fl**u**ng*	*fl**u**ng*	122	
58	*hang*	*h**u**ng* ®	*h**u**ng* ®	68	
59	*sp**i**n*	*sp**u**n (span †)*	*sp**u**n*	117	
60	*st**i**ck*	*st**u**ck*	*st**u**ck*	90	
61	*st**i**ng*	*st**u**ng*	*st**u**ng*	145	
62	*str**i**ke*	*str**u**ck*	*str**u**ck*	67	
63	*sw**i**ng*	*sw**u**ng*	*sw**u**ng*	85	
64	*w**i**n*	*won*	*won*	58	
65	*wr**i**ng*	*wr**u**ng*	*wr**u**ng*	152	

Table 10. The G2iUU group

Another large category is the **G2T** group with twenty items, where the II. and III. forms end in *-t*. It is worth checking the meaning and use of *bended* compared to *bent*, and the BE / AE variants of *get* and *spit*:

G2T	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
66	*bend*	*ben**t***	*ben**t*** ®	88	
67	*build*	*buil**t***	*buil**t***	43	
68	*creep*	*crep**t***	*crep**t***	120	
69	*deal*	*deal**t***	*deal**t***	57	
70	*feel*	*fel**t***	*fel**t***	19	
71	*get*	*go**t***	*go**t** (go**tt**en US)*	11	
72	*keep*	*kep**t***	*kep**t***	23	
73	*leave*	*lef**t***	*lef**t***	18	

G2T	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
74	*lend*	*lent*	*lent*	98	
75	*lose*	*lost*	*lost*	40	
76	*mean*	*meant*	*meant*	29	
77	*meet*	*met*	*met*	31	
78	*send*	*sent*	*sent*	42	
79	*shoot*	*shot*	*shot*	72	
80	*sit*	*sat*	*sat*	34	
81	*sleep*	*slept*	*slept*	78	
82	*spend*	*spent*	*spent*	47	
83	*spit*	*spat (spit US)*	*spat (spit US)*	130	
84	*sweep*	*swept*	*swept*	91	
85	*weep*	*wept*	*wept*	125	

Table 11. The G2T group

The previous list is completed with group **G2T®**, containing further eleven verbs; various sources often mention that the regular forms are highly popular in US English:

G2T®	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
86	*burn*	*burnt*	*burnt*		
87	*dream*	*dreamt*	*dreamt*		
88	*kneel*	*knelt*	*knelt*	126	
89	*lean*	*leant*	*leant*		
90	*leap*	*leapt*	*leapt*		
91	*learn*	*learnt*	*learnt*		
92	*light*	*lit*	*lit*	81	
93	*smell*	*smelt*	*smelt*		
94	*spell*	*spelt*	*spelt*		
95	*spill*	*spilt*	*spilt*		
96	*spoil*	*spoilt*	*spoilt*		

Table 12. The G2T® group

'Group' **G2X** is made up of only one verb, which however does not fit into any previous group:

G2X	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
97	*shine*	*shone*	*shone*	102	

Table 13. The G2X group

The third batch of groups contains those verbs which are the most difficult to learn – at least in theory –, as their I., II. and III. forms are all different. However, either the I. and III. or the II. and III. forms differ from each other minimally, thus offering the possible names for these five groups: G3EN, G3EN®, G3iAU, G3N and G3WN.

Group **G3EN** is the largest one with twenty-seven verbs, some of them with extremely high frequency. Although *done* and *gone* are spelled differently, they are typically regarded as belonging to this group, together with their derived forms (*underdo*, *undergo*, etc.). *Go* may have different meanings in its III. form, hence the two variants:

G3EN	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
98	*be (am, are, is)*	*was, were*	*be**en***	1	
99	*bite*	*bit*	*bitt**en***	121	
100	*break*	*broke*	*brok**en***	46	
101	*choose*	*chose*	*chos**en***	53	
102	*do*	*did*	*do**ne****	3	
103	*drive*	*drove*	*driv**en***	50	
104	*eat*	*ate*	*eat**en***	65	
105	*fall*	*fell*	*fall**en***	41	
106	*forbid*	*forbad(e)*	*forbid(d**en**)*	110	
107	*forget*	*forgot*	*forgott**en***	59	
108	*forgive*	*forgave*	*forgiv**en***	115	
109	*freeze*	*froze*	*froz**en***	101	
110	*give*	*gave*	*giv**en***	12	
111	*go*	*went*	*go**ne**, be**en***	6	
112	*hide*	*hid*	*hidd**en***	84	
113	*mistake*	*mistook*	*mistak**en***	119	
114	*ride*	*rode*	*ridd**en***	70	
115	*rise*	*rose*	*ris**en***	49	
116	*see*	*saw*	*se**en***	9	
117	*shake*	*shook*	*shak**en***	69	
118	*speak*	*spoke*	*spok**en***	35	
119	*steal*	*stole*	*stol**en***	94	
120	*take*	*took*	*tak**en***	7	
121	*undergo*	*underw**en**t*	*undergo**ne****	114	
122	*undo*	*undid*	*undo**ne****		
123	*weave*	*wove*	*wov**e(n)***	127	
124	*write*	*wrote*	*writt**en***	25	

Table 14. The G3EN group

The previous list is completed with group **G3EN®**, which contains three more verbs having the possibility to use them as regular ones:

G3EN®	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
125	*strive*	*strove* ®	*striv**en*** ®	118	
126	*swell*	*swelled* ®	*swoll**en*** ®	135	
127	*wake*	*woke* ®	*wok**en*** ®	89	

Table 15. The G3EN® group

Group **G3iAU** forms a distinctive pattern with nine irregular verbs, although some of them have variants that may enter the G3EN or the G2iUU as well:

G3iAU	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
128	*beg**i**n*	*beg**a**n*	*beg**u**n*	22	
129	*dr**i**nk*	*dr**a**nk*	*dr**u**nk*	73	
130	*r**i**ng*	*r**a**ng*	*r**u**ng*	97	
131	*shr**i**nk*	*shr**a**nk (shrunk*)*	*shr**u**nk(en*)*	134	
132	*s**i**ng*	*s**a**ng*	*s**u**ng*	66	
133	*s**i**nk*	*s**a**nk*	*s**u**nk(en*)*	99	

G3iAU	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
134	*spr**i**ng*	*spr**a**ng*	*spr**u**ng*	106	
135	*st**i**nk*	*st**a**nk, stunk**	*st**u**nk*	151	
136	*sw**i**m*	*sw**a**m*	*sw**u**m*	87	

Table 16. The G3iAU group

Although group **G3N** with its five verbs seems to resemble group G3EN, they are clearly different if we consider pronunciation. Furthermore, ***lie, lay**, lain* seems to be one of the most difficult irregular verbs, if not the most difficult, as its forms in bold overlap with the verb ***lay**, laid, laid* (cf. G2D), and with the regular verb ***lie**, lied, lied* ('speak falsely, not tell the truth').

A possible clue is that while *lie, lay, lain* is intransitive (*lie down for a while*), *lay, laid, laid* is transitive (requiring an object: *lay the table*). However, the three verbs are successfully confused, especially when their meaning, pronunciation and morphological structures (check their *-ing* or II. forms: *lying, laid*) are activated.

Their proper mastery is more than desirable, observing their frequency number. The icing on the cake in this respect is to discover that *lie* (regular and irregular combined) occupy position 447 in a list of most frequent 3,000 English words (63:103):

G3N	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
137	*bear*	*bore*	*bor**n**(e)*	63	
138	*lie*	*lay*	*lai**n***	36	
139	*swear*	*swore*	*swor**n***	108	
140	*tear*	*tore*	*tor**n***	95	
141	*wear*	*wore*	*wor**n***	52	

Table 17. The G3N group

The last group we discuss is **G3WN**, which obtained its name due to the endings of the III. forms; in fact, the majority of the II. forms are almost similar in vowel (*e*) and pronunciation. One verb tends to be used as a regular one (*mow*), but no separate group was considered necessary for it:

G3WN	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Possible translation
142	*blow*	*blew*	*blo**wn***	86	
143	*draw*	*drew*	*dra**wn***	45	
144	*fly*	*flew*	*flo**wn***	76	
145	*grow*	*grew*	*gro**wn***	39	
146	*know*	*knew*	*kno**wn***	10	
147	*mow**	*mowed*	*mo**wn***		
148	*show*	*showed*	*sho**wn***	17	
149	*throw*	*threw*	*thro**wn***	55	
150	*withdraw*	*withdrew*	*withdra**wn***	103	

Table 18. The G3WN group

Although we have tried to be as objective as possible, a certain subjectivity is still 'encoded' in these lists. For instance, one might ask why *bid, bid, bid* is not among the top 150 irregular verbs, but based on the references, these are the ones we thought it necessary to shortlist, taking into consideration their frequency as well. Furthermore, group membership is rather sound-based than spelling-based (cf. *win, won, won* or *read, read, read*).

A personal recommendation to learn these irregular verbs is to write them on cards with one side containing the three forms (optionally with their pronunciation, possible variants and expressions), while the other side should contain their translation. We tend to believe that the first stage of 'proper' English grammar may start with this 'memory game'.

The knowledge of the first form enables us a fluent communication, the second one makes it possible to express ourselves in past simple tense (a very frequent one), whereas the third form is typically combined with specific verbs (*be, am, are, is, was, were, being, have, has, had, having*), leading us to the next classification type (functionality).

However, there is a fundamental issue regarding **modal** verbs. Although there are grammars and dictionaries that list them among the irregular verbs (referring to them as a separate, modal-defective group), we do not agree that they should be discussed as irregular verbs whatsoever (cf. section 1.5.3.). The summarising table below lists the pattern groups:

Nr.	Pattern Group	Items	Salient example
1	G1	14	*cut, cut, cut*
2	G1®	9	*bet, bet, bet* *bet, bett**ed**, bett**ed***
3	G2^	3	***come**, came, **come***
4	G2D	20	*pay, pai**d**, pai**d***
5	G2D®	2	*speed, sped, sped* *speed, speed**ed**, speed**ed***
6	G2EN	1	*beat, beat, beat**en***
7	G2GHT	6	*buy, bo**ught**, bo**ught***
8	G2iUU	10	*d**i**g, d**u**g, d**u**g*
9	G2T	20	*sit, sa**t**, sa**t***
10	G2T®	11	*dream, dream**t**, dream**t*** *dream, dream**ed**, dream**ed***
11	G2X	1	*shine, shone, shone*
12	G3EN	27	*take, took, tak**en***
13	G3EN®	3	*wake, woke, wok**en*** *wake, wak**ed**, wak**ed***
14	G3iAU	9	*beg**i**n, beg**a**n, beg**u**n*
15	G3N	5	*wear, wore, wor**n***
16	G3WN	9	*know, knew, kno**wn***

Table 19. Pattern groups for irregular verbs

Appendix 9.1. contains these 150 irregular verbs in alphabetical order.
Appendix 9.2. contains an extended list of 680 irregular verbs.

1.5. Functional classification

The most complex type of verb classification is undeniably the **functional** one. At this level, the verb interacts with other verbs (for instance to form various tenses), but its position compared to the noun / subject of the sentence is also important.

Owing to the various terms circulating about verbs, it may prove difficult to offer a unified functional classification, although we will try to offer alternate terms for them as well. 'Full' and 'special' verbs may be viewed in a four-pronged approach (**strong**, **auxiliary**, **modal** and **weak**), detailed in the following.

1.5.1. Strong verb(s)

In our view, Shakespeare's most famous quote (*To be, or not to be*) may be used as the starting point of the English functional verb system, as certain *be*-forms (*am, is are, was, were*) are non-auxiliary verbs when used without accompanying other verbs.

Thus *am, are, is* can only be used in present tenses or special constructions connected to these tenses (*be to, be about to*), and they should be treated as I. forms (similarly to *be*), whereas *was* and *were* are the II. forms used in Past Simple, conditional, subjunctive and hypothetical structures (detailed in subsequent chapters).

1.5.1.1. Forms and function of *be*

1. *be* is most eloquent as a strong verb (Ⓢ) when its forms are used by themselves (without combined with other verbs) in Present Simple and Past Simple; thus 'strong' verb (*be, am, are, is, was, were*) means that it is strong enough to form the negative and interrogative forms of a sentence alone, without the help of any auxiliary:
   *Jane Doe **is / was** a professional soldier.*
   ***Is** Jane Doe a professional soldier?*
   *Jane Doe **is** not a professional soldier.*
   ***Isn't** Jane Doe a professional soldier?*

2. American English uses both *aren't* (standard) and *ain't* (considered substandard, 11:394) as negative-interrogative contractions for *am, are* or *is*:[3]
   *You **ain't** here to sit and relax…*
   *I **ain't** a killer but don't push me.* (2Pac – *Hail Mary*)

3. however, even *be* is problematic as a 'strong' verb, because this form may be combined with a modal verb (Ⓜ, see 1.5.3.), which takes over its grammatical 'power'; it is not only modal verbs that weaken this form, as the negative imperative structure in the last example reinforces the approach that *be* is actually 'weakened':
   *John **will be** happy to marry Jane.*
   ***Will** John **be** happy to marry Jane?*
   *John **won't be** happy to marry Jane.*
   ***Won't** John **be** happy to marry Jane?*
   ***Don't be** so naive about it.*

- in these examples the 'basic' meaning of *be* (existence) is preserved, and may be translated as a separate word, which explains why grammars mention *be* as a full or ordinary verb to refer to **existence**, expressing **feelings** or certain **characteristics** (age, height, size, etc.).

4. a further important observation is that even if the list of irregular verbs contains the third form of *be* (*been*), this is to be considered neither strong, nor auxiliary; it is rather a 'weakened' form, as it is always preceded by the perfect auxiliary *have, has* or *had*:
   John Doe has never been distracted by civilians.
   Has John Doe ever been distracted by civilians?

[3] Another notable exception banished from grammar books is *amn't*, which might only be used in Scottish and Irish English.

Illustration 2. John Doe has never been distracted

1.5.1.2. Various uses of strong *be*

1. *be* followed by a name, noun or pronoun to provide identification, and it is typically used to mention professions:
   *He **is** John Doe.*
   *That**'s** Doetown.*
   *John **is** a pro.*

2. be followed by an adjective or noun is often synonymous with *feel* (or 'be in a state'):

Word cloud 1. *Be* + adjectives

These constructions (40:188) are often used in:

3. imperatives:
   *Don't **be** so silly!*
   ***Be** happy!*
4. emphasised imperatives:
   *Do **be** quiet, I'm trying to focus!*

- these combinations are predominantly used in Present Simple:
  *This **is** not funny.*

- however, they may refer to actions or behaviour, turning to Present Continuous, meaning that the doer is "deliberately acting this way" (33:119) or temporary behaviour (40:191):
  *"Jane, you **are** not **being** funny with that knife in your hand."* (right now)
  *"John dear, you **are being** silly to think that I want to hurt you."*
  (But John is not silly.)
  *"I know Jane that you **are** just being **polite**…"*
  *Jane **is being** sick. (She's throwing up behind the barn.)*

5. *be* may mean 'have', referring to age, time, form, height, weight, colour, price, size or possessives:
   *How old **is** Jane? How tall **is** Jane?*
   *It**'s** 9 a.m. **Is** it the right time to marry John Doe?*
   *What shape **is** her head?*
   *Who **is** he?* (referring to the person) *What **is** he?* (referring to her job)
   *It**'s** hers.*
   *What size **are** her shoes? His shoes **are** $29.99.*

Illustration 3. His shoes are...

6. the existential construction beginning the sentence (*There is / are / was / were*) is also noteworthy, where *there* is an 'empty' or 'dummy' noun substitute:
   *Hey Joe, there **are** four guys waiting for you outside the pub.*

7. the 'empty' *it* is easily combined with *be*:
   *It**'s** rainy.*
   *It**'s** far away from Doetown.*
   *It**'s** (not) worth getting angry about that.* (idiomatic phrase)
   *It**'s** no use crying over spilt milk.* (idiomatic phrase)

8. some phrases containing be may be considered idiomatic expressions (11:393):
   a) where *be* is used as an **operator** in interrogative and negative:
   *How **is** she?* (her everyday life, physical condition)
   *What **is** she like?* (physical appearance)
   *How **is** it that …?* (asking for explanation)
   What's up? (~ What is going on? ~How are you?)
   *He**'s** on the point of…* (preparing to do something)

b) where *be* is **weakened**:
*What have you **been** up to? (Confess your misbehaviour!)*
*Let me **be**!* (asking for 'space')
*Jessica Alba plays, as it **were**, the role of a language teacher and mistress in the movie* The Sleeping Dictionary.

9. the weakened *be* may be used as a synonym for *go*, typically in Present Perfect Simple tense:
*I've never **been** there.*

10. other verbs related in meaning to *be* (40:187–206) are: *seem, appear, feel, look, smell, sound, taste (like), chance, happen, prove*.

However, *be* may also function as an auxiliary or part of a modal verb, leading us to the following sections.

1.5.2. Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs (Ⓐ, primary or principal auxiliaries, function verbs, helping verbs, anomalous finites, verb substitutes, form words or empty words) have either limited (derived from a sentence) or no whatsoever notional or lexical content (especially the 'tense-formers'), but they are used combined with notional words.

Lacking an independent meaning (i.e. they have no translation as a separate word), they **help** other (auxiliary or non-auxiliary) verbs (basically weak ones) to express various grammatical functions by adding grammatical information (continuous, future, perfect or passive, forming the negative / interrogative) to the construction.

The second syntactical category is a rather diversified collection of 'special' auxiliary or **function** verbs (other terms referring to them are: principal, primary auxiliaries), which are 'non-predicative' and in need of completion from the point of view of predication (e.g. 14:7).

Arguably, the set of auxiliary verbs "come in families" (53:32), and may be grouped around *be* (*am, are, is, was, were*), *have* (*-s* form *has*, II. *had*) and *do* (*does, did*); it is visible that only the I. and II. forms are considered.

Nevertheless, they can be 'full' verbs (see 1.5.4.), when they bear various meanings (*be ~ exist, do ~ make, have ~ possess, drink, eat*, etc.). Although grammar books do not list will among auxiliaries, one of its functions is to help create 'Future' tenses; similarly, *let* may also function as an auxiliary verb.

As for the terminology, we refer to them as **auxiliary** verbs, as other terms associated with them may be misleading (e.g. they cannot be primary when preceded by modal verbs). They are highly important as they function as **operators**, which are vital in formulating sentences expressing various needs, detailed below. The 'full' verb may be preceded by one, two or three auxiliaries (excluding modal verbs). **Modal** verbs 'modify' the meaning of the verb phrase by adding non-factuality subjectivity to utterances, so they are treated separately (1.5.3.).

Auxiliaries are not to be treated as 'defective' verbs (cf. 75:161), as they are rather helping verbs and operators, whose function changes together with their position change in the sentence (cf. 75:55).

Auxiliaries construct aspects and tenses (Simple, Continuous / Progressive, Perfect Simple, Perfect Continuous) in affirmative, negative, interrogative or interrogative-negative forms, but certain remarks are necessary:

1. we can distinguish auxiliaries of tense (22:293): *be, have,* and *will*; however, *shall* may be a variant for first person singular (mainly BE use), while *should* and *would* may be labelled as tense auxiliaries only if 'Future-in-the-Past' constructions are listed among tenses;

2. *will* and *would* are also used for frequentative events:
   Whatever you do, John Doe will stay in the jungle for hours on end.
   When a child, John Doe would hunt for rabbits in the forest.

3. there are two exceptions to the general rule of negation (add *n't* to the first auxiliary):
   - *won't* is used instead of **~~willn't~~;*
   - *am not, ain't, aren't I* is used instead of **~~amn't I~~* (cf.75:59)

4. auxiliaries may add emphasis to the statement: this way any string of two or more verbs means that the first one(s) are auxiliaries or modal verbs, while the last one is the full verb, carrying the 'central' meaning. In these cases, the auxiliary is stressed, thus it cannot be contracted; lack of initial auxiliary results in adding the 'dummy' *do* (see 1.5.2.3.) to express emphatic / intensive affirmative:
   *We '**do** want to hear your voice.*

5. some auxiliaries are referred to as **anomalous** finites, as they have negative forms ending in *-n't* and they are not used with *do* (*am, are, is, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, let*), while others are non-finite (*be, being, been, have, having, had, do, doing, done*).

6. strong forms add to the "emotional force" (such as enthusiasm, annoyance, insistence, etc., cf. 75:147), while contracted (unstressed, short or abbreviated) forms are weak; thus – from the very beginning – language learners need to be aware of the possible differences between casual remarks (unstressed forms) and emphasised (full auxiliary) forms (75:22):
   *John**'s** tired*. (casual observation)
   *John **is** tired.* (highlighting the fact, complaint, demonstration, etc.)

7. auxiliaries can help in forming various tags (e.g. question tags and comment tags). As tags are amply discussed in syntax (connected to subjects and verb / predicates), we only exemplify them here, without offering details:
   *Jane **is** happy, **isn't** she?*

8. auxiliaries can form short answers to avoid repetition (cf. 33:111–115):
   ***Is** she sleeping? Yes, she **is**.*

9. auxiliaries can also form reply questions to express various attitudes or feelings (cf. 'interested' or 'agreement' response, 75:57–58), such as (dis)agreement, surprise or polite interest, indignation, annoyance:
   *Yes, he **does**. She **is** here. No, she**'s not**. No, she **isn't**. Oh, no, she **isn't**.*
   ***Is** it? (~ 'Really?')*
   *I have seen a ghost. Oh, **have** you?*
   *Why haven't you bought stocks? But I **have.***

10. auxiliaries trigger inversion (for emphasis) in negative constructions, which is often neglected by non-native speakers, thus being a favourite trick during language exams:
    *Little **did** the buyer know what to think of the book cover…*
    *Under no circumstances **is** Jane to marry John.*
    *So terrible **was** the reaction of the mother-in-law that John got to a psychiatrist.*
    *Shrek **does** not like the construction of the castle. Neither **does** Fiona.*
    *Hardly **had** Jane opened her eyes when John surprised her with a hot coffee.*
    ***Hadn't** Shrek faced the soldiers, Donkey would have got into trouble.*

11. auxiliaries also construct various expressions or stock phrases, in which cases they are meaning-based auxiliaries and not functional auxiliaries, so they do not help in forming interrogative and negative structures (e.g. causative *have*, detailed in 1.5.2.2.).

12. the **operator** functions of auxiliaries (negation, interrogation, emphasis, abbreviation, cf. 46:206) clearly show that rules are hardly ever strict: while auxiliary verbs typically co-occur with a full verb (this is how they help them), auxiliaries may appear alone in short answers to avoid repetition, on condition that the full verb may be deduced form the context; this is usually discussed within syntactic ellipsis and substitution:
    *Jane Doe **was** seen with John Doe. **Was** she?*
    ***Wasn't** she seen with John Doe? No, she **wasn't**.*
    *I **have** had enough of this Jane and John Doe. You **have**, **haven't** you.*
    *I **don't** know why you **didn't** use John Smith instead of John Doe.*

1.5.2.1. Auxiliary *be*

According to grammarians[4] *be* has two **auxiliary** functions:

1. it helps in forming aspect (all continuous / progressive tenses):
   *Jane Doe **is** slicing tomatoes while John Doe **is** peeling onions.*
   (Present Continuous)

2. it is also a passive auxiliary (Passive Voice), even referred to as **copula** (11:383), establishing the link between the subject and the nominal predicate (*be, am, are, is, was, were, been, being*, cf. Chapter 3):
   *Tomatoes **are being** sliced and onions **(are being**) peeled by the Does.*
   (Passive Voice)
   *The Does **were** not afraid of slicing and peeling vegetables.*
   (copula)

3. *ain't* is used in AE (considered substandard, 11:394), which may be the negative form of *am*, *are* or *is*:
   *An actor's a guy who, if you **ain't** talking about him, **ain't** listening.*
   (Marlon Brando)

4. there are also **perfective** cases,[5] expressed by a form of *be* (informal):
   ***Is** she come?*
   *The sun **is** set.*

[4] 11:384, 33:116–121, 12:106, 41:79–81.
[5] 11:391–393, 40:190.

*They **were** gone.*
*I **am** done to the world.*
*I**'m** done with all that nonsense.*
*I**'m** nearly finished with it.*

5. there are certain semi-auxiliaries containing be, such as ***be** apt to, **be** bound to, **be** certain to, **be** due to, **be** liable to, **be** likely to, **be** on the point of, **be** sure to, **be** unlikely to,* etc.

6. some expressions containing *be* have so special meanings connected to future that they are worth discussing separately (e.g. ***be** to, **be** going to*, see 2.14.). They function as a combination of auxiliary (when forming negative, interrogative, past constructions) and modal verbs (considering their meaning), so grammar books discuss them as semi-auxiliaries and semi-modals as well.

7. a few expressions of necessity are formed with the help of *be* combined with adjectives (*essential, imperative / important that* + ***be** / **were***) forming the subjunctive mood (cf. 4.2.):
*It is essential that they **be** explained this weird sentence.*

8. ***be to*** may be considered a marginal modal verb (cf. 7.3.13), expressing official plans, arrangements, fate-like statements (41:80) referring to the future (followed by I. verb form) in both present and past forms, unfulfilled events (followed by *have* + III. verb form), orders or notices and instructions (passive constructions):
*We **are to** arrive at 9 p.m.*
*John **was to** meet Jane at the cave before dawn.*
*Jane **was t**o have stayed in Neverland for three more months.*
*John **is not to** leave the premises until further orders.*
*Promises **are not to** be broken.*

1.5.2.2. Auxiliary *have*

Have is a rather complex entry in any grammar, having weak (1.5.4.1.), auxiliary or modal (1.5.3.) functions.[6] However, at this stage we only focus on its auxiliary functions.

1. **auxiliary** *have* helps forming six Perfect tenses (*have* or *had* followed by III. verb form) in affirmative, interrogative and negative structures:
*Jane **has** thought a lot about John.*
*They **have** been planning the marriage for 25 years.*
*Jane **had** bought the veil before she met John.*
*John **had** been waiting for 15 minutes, when Jane showed up.*
*By 2050 Jane will **have** left the army.*
*By 2050 John will **have** been serving in the army for 50 years.*

2. certain **conditional** tenses rely on *have* in formulating a special meaning, which is also challenging for non-native speakers who use suffixes or mood to render these situations:
*If John **had** married Jane, I wouldn't **have** written about them.* (unfulfilled)
***Had** John married Jane, you would know about it.* (emphasised)
*If it **hadn't** been for his shyness, John would **have** married Jane 25 years ago.*

[6] 11:397–399, 41:205–211.

3. *have* is also used in **causative** constructions,[7] where somebody can cause something to happen / be done, or make (force) somebody do something in his / her place; in these cases, *get* is a colloquial synonym for *have*:
   *John and Jane **had** the reception rescheduled yesterday*. (passive, causative)
   John and Jane don't often have their comrades invited by the colonel.

4. causative *have* may be followed by an object and present participle as well:
   *She'll **have** you crying in no time.*
   *I'll **have** them paying a visit to my creditors …*

5. the examples for *have* in conditional and causative sentences suggest that *have* is only considered an auxiliary due to the special meaning in these constructions (*if* + *had*, *would* + *have* + III. verb form, *have* + object + III. verb form):
   If we had had the chance, we would have bought a zoo.
   Have it plastered.

6. when interrogative or negative forms are needed, we use the other (functional) auxiliaries, such as *be* and *do*:
   ***Are** John and Jane **having** their comrades entertained by Benny Hill?*

7. *get* may be synonymous with *have*, but *make* is also an alternative, especially when 'force' may be applied:
   *Jane's boss **made** her climb over the wall.*
   *Does the corporal **make** them crawl?*

8. certain subjunctive constructions expressing advice or suggestion also make use of *have*, but in the form of idiomatic expressions: *had better* / *had rather* / *had sooner* + I. verb form (bare infinitive); if the speaker is also involved, a synonymous expression may be formulated with *let's*:
   *You**'d better** get accustomed to this type of sentences.*
   *We**'d better** switch to the next section. (~ **Let's** switch to the next section.)*

9. although *had rather* and *had sooner* are considered archaic (cf. *would rather*), they may express a certain wish of the speaker towards himself / herself or towards somebody else:
   Author: ***I'd rather** continue the story of Jane and John Doe.*
   ('If you don't mind, I would like to …)
   Critic: ***I'd rather you** didn't continue it.*
   ('If you don't mind, I wouldn't like you to…)

It is worth observing the different grammatical approach reflected by these examples:
a) while the first example expresses a wish for the speaker, the infinitive is used;
b) as the second example expresses a wish towards somebody else, a more remote, distancing form is needed (II. verb form, to be discussed in subsequent chapters).

Have may function as a modal verb (synonym for *must*) when it is followed by *to*. A detailed description is to be found in Chapter 7 about modal verbs (cf. *have to, have got to, gotta*).

[7] This is a special type of Passive Voice, cf. 33:121–124.

1.5.2.3. Auxiliary *do*

This **auxiliary** verb is extensively used syntactically as a 'dummy', semantically 'empty', 'support' operator. It is also called a periphrastic auxiliary (combination of an auxiliary and a weak: *did marry*, instead of an inflected past: *married*).

Lewis argues that it is a 'dummy' auxiliary (*do, does, did*), enacted when no other auxiliary is available (such as *be*, *have* or *will*), thus contributing to the logical English verb system as an operator (75:56). Its functions[8] are detailed in the following:

1. auxiliary for Present Simple (*do, does*), Past Simple (*did*) in interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms of weak verbs:
   *Jane **doesn't** know that John loves her.* (Present Simple, negative)
   ***Did** John buy flowers for Jane yesterday*? (Past Simple, interrogative)
   ***Didn't** we have an agreement about the guests?*
   (Past Simple, negative-interrogative)

2. however, when a subject question is involved, there is no need for the dummy *do*:
   Who would like to attend the wedding reception?
   What happened to John's eye?

3. there are specific negative constructions triggering inversion with *do*:
   *At no time **did** he feel anything for Jane. (He never felt anything for Jane.)*

4. *do* can replace the weak verb or an entire clause to avoid repetition;[9] when the speaker wishes to avoid repetition, ellipsis or substitution is involved:
   *Help her! I**'ve** already **done** so. I**'ve** already **done** it.* (verb)
   *She doesn't like doing the chores, but I **do**.* (clause)
   *Do you know about John and Jane Doe? I think everybody **does**.*
   *That looks funny. Yes, it **does**, **doesn't** it?* (polite or ironical overtones)

5. to avoid repetition in (short) answers:
   *Do you love Jane? Yes, I **do**.*

6. to avoid repetition in short agreements or disagreements:
   *John waits too much to pop the question. Yes, he **does**. No, he **doesn't**.*

7. addition to remarks; in case the addition starts with so or a negative adverb (*neither, nor, never, hardly*, etc.), we may observe inversion and / or avoiding repetition of a clause:
   *Jane likes the idea of marriage and John **does** too.*
   *Jane enjoys vegetarian meals but John **doesn't**.*
   *Jane hates receptions and so **do** we.*
   *Jane and John like the idea of marriage. So **do** I!*
   *Jane didn't see the news yesterday and neither **did** John.*
   *They don't want a large wedding reception. Nor **do** their mothers-in-law.*
   *Never **did** John want to hurt her feelings.*
   *Hardly **do** you help them if you lose your head.*

[8] A notable non-productive stock phrase is *How do you do?* However, this is connected more to the lexicon than grammar (cf. 75:10).

[9] Cf. 11:400–401, 33:126–127.

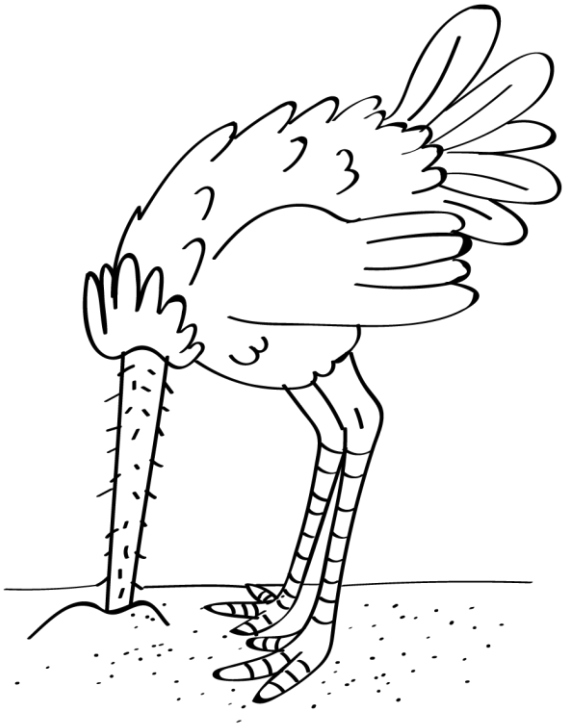

Illustration 4. Hardly do you help

8. *do* is used as the question tag for Present Simple, while *did* is the question tag for Past Simple; these tags are short additions to the end of sentences, usually asking for confirmation or agreement):
   *John loves Jane, **doesn't** he?*
   *You don't know it, **do** you?*
   *Jane didn't marry John, **did** she?*

9. comment tags (affirmative statements take interrogative tags, negative statements take negative tags); they may express surprise, indignation, etc.:
   *Jane met John, **did** she?*
   *Jane met John. Oh, she **did**, **did** she?*

10. emphatic constructions to express persuasive / (very) polite requests, invitations, emphasised imperatives / statements to convince the others (11:401):
    *I do want to go to their wedding. **Do** come with us.*
    ***Do** come in, won't you?*
    *I **did** see her. And I do love her.*
    *He **does** want to marry her.*
    *I **do** want you to stop with these examples!*

11. emphasised forms combined with inversion, triggered by negative words, half-negative words or words acting similarly to them:
    *Never in my life **did** I see Jane Doe.*
    *Well **do** I remember that episode from 'Castle', when I heard about John Doe.*
    *Only after John kissed her **did** Jane faint.*

12. comparisons:
    *Jane drives much faster than John **does**.*
    *John drinks much more than I **do**.*

1.5.2.4. Auxiliary *will*

Although grammars describe *will* as a modal verb, all of them agree that it helps forming the 'future'[10] tenses: Future Simple, Future Continuous, Future Perfect Simple and Future Perfect Continuous. Thus, in our view, it is not far-fetched to consider it a **functional auxiliary** verb (although certain meanings are also associated with it), which is vital in forming the affirmative, interrogative and negative constructions of tenses typically associated with 'future' (Future Simple, Future Continuous, Future Perfect Simple, Future Perfect Continuous):

*I guess Jane **will** meet John tonight.*
***Will** they be facing great danger?*
*By the time I retire John **will** have married Jane.*
*This time next year John **will** have been seeing Jane for 25 years.*

However, the future concept in these tenses is always combined with certain concepts belonging to modality and speech acts (e.g. promise, arrangement, prediction, etc.), leading us to the conclusion that *will* or *shall* used this way is formally similar to the 'dummy' *do*, *does* or *did*, but the latter ones bear no meaning whatsoever, while the modals do.

Although *shall* is the synonym of *will* for the first person singular or plural (*I shall meet…; We shall see…*), its use is rather limited nowadays, predominantly in the UK. The sentences also reflect that auxiliaries may be combined (*have + been*). However, when there are two or more auxiliary verbs in the construction, we can distinguish the 'primary' auxiliary (always the first one) from the 'secondary' auxiliaries. The primary auxiliary helps in forming the interrogative and negative forms (it may be a modal verb or an auxiliary), while the second and / or third auxiliary helps in forming the perfective forms (*have, has, had*) or progressive ones (*be, been*).

Similarly to *shall* and *will*, some grammars include *should* and *would* among the tense-former auxiliaries (Future-in-the-Past tenses), although they may be discussed more logically within Reported Speech or the sequence of tenses (detailed later).

1.5.2.5. Auxiliary *let*

Let may be considered a functional auxiliary, although much more limited compared to the previous ones, found in specific constructions, expressions and stock phrases:

1. it is an equivalent or forming the analytical subjunctive (10:67) for the first and third persons (cf. 11:402–403):
   ***Let** me see! **Let's** go!*
   ***Let's** not overemphasise the importance of 'let'.*
   ***Let'm** go! (substandard)*

2. there are grammars mentioning *let* in connection with the Imperative Mood, referring to it as the "imperative auxiliary" (46:50), exemplified below:
   ***Let** A be equal to B.*
   ***Let** us put it that the Does never give up.*

[10] The term 'future' is to be handled with care (hence the inverted commas) until we discuss it in details (cf. 2.9.).

- however, imperatives are direct orders, while these examples are indirect orders (1st and 2nd person imperative), hence they are closer to subjunctive structures (cf. 11:402); the notion of "indirect imperative" is illogical, unless discussed within the subjunctive mood, where functions of let are presented connected to the first of the third person alike; its translation is also predominantly subjunctive;

3. its modal 'colour' is felt when the imperative function is weakened, leading to concessive meanings, presupposition or hypothesis (22:340), so in fact it should be treated as a "lexical item defined by its function" (75:156):
   Let's *not overreact, shall we?*[11]
   Let's *not jump to conclusions, shall we?* (possible warning)
   Let *them decide upon their own fate, will you?*

4. even if it may introduce imperative-like sentences, which may seem to refer to the first and third persons in the form of suggestions and orders (41:303), it is true that all imperatives are direct, and only subjunctives express indirect orders (11:315):
   Let *me help her.*
   Let *us hurry or else we'll miss the train.*
   Let *her finish her job.* (proposal, suggestion, cf. 11:307)
   Let *them wait, but don't let them go.*
   Let *there be light.* (impersonal imperative)
   Let *the 75th games begin.*[12]
   (hidden imperative remark, allusion to the Olympic Games)
   Don't let's *do that again.* (colloquial double negative)

5. another interesting remark regarding *let* is that the active voice form is always followed by the short infinitive, while the passive voice form is followed by the long infinitive:
   He was not ***let to*** *escape.*

6. a different perspective may reveal a 'hidden' subject, turning the first and third persons into objects:
   (You should) let *me help her.*
   (You'd better) let them wait.

7. there are possible variants for *let* as a subjunctive and imperative auxiliary (14:231):
   Why don't you *call the police?*
   How about *watch****ing*** *a good movie?*
   Don't you think *we should tell the kids where Santa Claus is?*
   What about *taking a break?*

There are common expressions with *let*, expressing a multitude of meanings:

- instruction to oneself, proposal:
  Let *me think.*
- encouragement, offer for help, to gain time, etc.:
  Let *me see.*

[11] Although *Don't let's* is a possible form, it is considered colloquial (11:307).
[12] Cf. *The Hunger Games*, http://www.imdb.com/title/tt1392170/, 16. 08. 2017.

- the most weakened semantic value of *let* are synonymous with 'permit' or 'rent':[13]
  *Don't **let** go of the rails!*
  *Live and **let** live.*
  *Do not **let** the sun go down while you are still angry. (NIV, Ephesians 4:26)*
  ***Let** the dead bury their dead. (NIV, Matthew 8:22)*
  ***Let** not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth. (KJ21, Matthew 6:3)*
  ***Let** me be!*
  *House to **let**.*
- proverbs and sayings also make use of *let*:[14]
  ***Let** all things past, pass.*
  ***Let** bygones be bygones.*
  ***Let** not your wits go wool-gathering.*
  ***Let** sleeping dogs lie.* (cf. Geoffrey Chaucer and Sir Robert Walpole)
  ***Let** the buyer beware.* (Lat. Caveat emptor, disclaimer of warranties)
  ***Let** the cobbler stick to his last.*
  ***Let** well enough alone.*

A final remark is that six auxiliary verbs[15] (*do, does, did, have, has, had*) may function as weak verbs as well on two (simultaneous) conditions:

1. there is no other verb in the affirmative sentence, and
2. being the only verb in the sentence, their meaning is activated (detailed in section 1.5.4.):
   *The Does **have** breakfast at 8.* (~ *eat*)
   *Jane **does** her job all the time.*

1.5.3. Modal verbs – introduction

There are many warning statements about modal verbs, ranging from 'problematic' or 'complicated' to 'messy' (cf. 30:49), leading to a certain modal abyss: whatever grammar book we consult in this respect, the approach is different, ranging from considering modals as irregular verbs (cf. some dictionaries) to the 'ultimate' list of modal verbs, including or excluding certain entries (e.g. *used to, have to, be to*).

However, one of the very few grammar books highlights the importance of a rule regarding modal verbs, which may serve as a starting point: "modal auxiliaries occur in the first place in the verb phrase helps us to identify the group of modal auxiliaries… not possible for them to co-occur with the others" (75:100). This is a very useful observation, but first we have to differentiate modal verbs from auxiliary verbs (*be, have*) and the dummy and emphatic *do*, as all these may occur in the first place in a verb phrase:

1. *be* and *have* bear no meaning as auxiliary verbs, while modal verbs have their own meaning; *do* is basically the synonym of *really* or *indeed*, when used emphatically:
   *I **do** love you.*

2. as no co-occurrence is possible, auxiliary verbs are not modal verbs:
   *You **are being** naughty today.*
   *He **has had** breakfast.*
   *I **don't do** that anymore.*

[13] 11:402, 22:340.
[14] http://buklib.net/books/32083/, 24. 01. 2017.
[15] *Be* may turn strong, while *will* is in fact a modal verb.

3. along the same line, few verbs may be considered modals, thus they form a closed class with well-identifiable members;

4. the membership of modal verbs may be extended to other verbs and constructions bearing certain modal forms and functions, which are considered marginal members.

The present section focuses on modal verbs approaching them formally and functionally, while their meaning is discussed separately in Chapter 7.

1.5.3.1. Types of modal verbs

Various terms may refer to them:

- modal verbs or modals;
- modal-auxiliaries;
- secondary auxiliaries (46:153–156); nevertheless, it is not very logical to consider them 'secondary', as they are always 'first' in a string of verbs (cf. 46:260–266);
- defective modal verbs (lacking the majority of forms, having mostly only one form);
- anomalous or special finites:
  shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought, need, dare;
- pure or syntactic modal verbs (15:197);
- mood-formers (11:383), as they may express the 'mood', opinion and attitude of the speaker (30:2) with specific concepts (possibility, necessity, politeness, etc.).

We will refer to them as **modal verbs** (or **modals**, for short), anticipating that modal verbs are functionally stronger than any other verb type, demonstrated later. After having established their category name, we have to mention that there are various sub-categories connected to modals:[16]

1. **central** or core modals (9 verbs): *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must*; some of them are 'multifunctional', being discussed as the auxiliary for future (*shall, will*), Future-in-the-Past (*would*), the conditional (*would, should*), or subjunctive (*may, might*, cf. 10:42–85), being even called 'mood auxiliaries' (22:293); while *will* and *shall* may function as auxiliaries to future tenses, this is not their primary function;
2. **marginal**, peripheral, quasi- or semi-modals (4 verbs): *dare, need, ought to, used to*; sometimes *have to* and *be to* are listed here; *dare, need* and *used to* are also used as weak verbs (helped by *do* or *did* in interrogative or negative forms); these verbs are also called quasi-modals (37:402) because when 'extracted' from the sentence, no major change to meaning is observed; finite modals are the members of the previous two categories combined;
3. **modal idioms** (cf. the semi-auxiliaries below): had better, would rather, would sooner, be to, have got to, could possibly, may well (28:137, 36:137);
4. **semi-auxiliary** (**modal**) verbs and constructions, which are often substitutes (even if with shades of meaning) for central modal verbs; substitution is only possible based on semantic similarity, as formally they are "outside the [modal]

[16] Major sources are: 10:47–52, 28:38, 29:69; 30:2–4, 36:3–6; 39:17–18, 41:325–327, 42:151–152; 48:99–136, 75:100.

system" (30:3, 36:137–143); they may be **copulas**[17] (linking or copular verbs, marked with an asterisk in the table below) followed by predicative complements, functioning as substitutes, or being catenative verbs, expressing similar meanings to modal verbs, although behaving like weak verbs:

appear (to)	*sound*	*manage (to)*	*get + III.*
begin to	*stop* + I.-*ing*	*remain**	*grow** (dark)
come	*tend (to)*	*seem to*	*keep* + I.-*ing*
fail	*be* somewhere	*start* + I.-*ing*	*mean to*
feel (~ soft)	*begin* + I.-*ing*	*suppose to*	*run**
*go**	*come to* ('happen to')	*turn* (out to)*	*smell*
happen	*fail to*	*become**	*stay**
look	*get* (to)*	*burn*	*taste*
prove (to)	*go on* + I.-*ing*	*continue* + I.-*ing*	*wear*
seem (~ happy)	*happen to*	*fall**	

Table 20. Semi-auxiliaries, copulas and catenatives

A special subset of semi-auxiliaries is formed with *be*, knowing that they are relevant in the subjunctive mood, as *be* is the only auxiliary that can be in the subjunctive (cf. 46:248):

*If Fiona **were** going to confess Shrek that …*

All link-verbs need a nominal part to form complete predication (nominal predicate), expressing tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number. However, they are also 'modal paraphrases', being constructions connected to modal verbs (*be able to, be allowed to, be permitted to, am / are / is to, have to, used to*, cf. 15:197), although the list may be extended to other entries as well:

Word cloud 2. Semi-modal *be*

The extended view of modality makes it difficult to set boundaries for modals, as *seem* or *happen* lead to further options, such as *want* or *begin* (30:25); there are views that the extended approach to modals makes it impossible to delimit them (82:59), hence it is necessary to discuss criteria for modal verbs.

1.5.3.2. Criteria for modal verbs

Characteristics[18] of modal verbs (e.g. 47:94–110) are worth discussing compared to strong, auxiliary and weak verbs. Verbs are characterised by certain **forms**, in which respect modal

[17] Copulas are used in syntax, and they are connected to verb conjugation, expressing tense, aspect, mood and subject–verb agreement.

[18] https://www.thoughtco.com/primary-verbs-1691534, 04. 04. 2017.

verbs have distinctive features (primarily summarised in 30:4, but extended from various sources):

A. Central modal verbs have a single form, so:

1. they are unique regarding the agreement with the subject (we would not like to call them 'defective', as in 29:70), so they take no *-s* in the third person singular; in other words, all persons and numbers take the same modal verb, which are not inflected in any way; consequently, no agreement is necessary in number and person between the subject and the verb phrase starting with a modal verb ("there is no overt concord at all", as mentioned in 36:149); thus, they have no *-ed* form for the II. verb form; notable exceptions are considered to be marginal modal verbs, such as *have to, need or dare*:
   *She **can** be here any minute.*
   *She **has** to be somewhere else.*

2. they lack non-finite forms (infinitive, gerund or participle forms); this means that they are not preceded by the infinitive to particle or do not end in *-ing* (10:47).

B. They have auxiliary (operator) functions, but they still preserve their own meaning; whenever a modal verb is combined (more precisely: followed) by any other verb type (strong, auxiliary or weak), it acts like a **functional auxiliary**. Thus – similarly to the auxiliaries –, modal verbs can be used in the following cases:

3. they are always first positioned in a string verbs, followed by either auxiliaries or weak verbs (modifying the meaning of the weak verb); this entails that modals are all considered transitive, whose direct object is the weak verb following them (11:403):
   *Jane **might be watching** the cranes flying over the city.*

4. they are used to form the negative:
   *She **can't** be here in three minutes.*

However, in order to distinguish auxiliary and modal verbs, further remarks are needed (36:137):

- they function as operators in negation, when negation is formed with *not*, which follows the auxiliary or modal verb and it may be contracted as *n't*; we can distinguish two types of negation (15:200–201):
- external negation (the negation sometimes refers to the modal verb): *may not* for permission, *can't* for senses, *don't have to*, *needn't*;
- internal negation (the weak verb is negated): *may not* for possibility, *must not* for obligation, *will not / won't, shall not / shan't.*

5. they may be inverted with the subject (inversion in *yes / no* questions / interrogation, positive emphasis):
   ***Can** she do that?*
   ***Should** she be here in three minutes, I'll eat my hat.*

6. weak verbs following them may be deleted, resulting in elliptical structures (ellipsis, short answers, question tags, reduced clauses) to avoid repetition:

*She **can** help you. Yes, she **can**.*
*She **can** help you, **can't** she?*
*She **can** help you and so **can** he.*
*Jane **can** pull the trigger you if you **can**.*

7. they are used to form emphatic structures,[19] as they may be stressed:
   *Whatever you do, I '**will** marry her!*

8. although emphatic affirmation is possible, modals cannot be used in the imperative mood (11:383);

C. A verb phrase may have more than one verb (no more than five), with an important remark:

9. there is no co-occurrence of modal verbs, meaning that it is not possible for two modal verbs to follow each other in a verb phrase (29:75); however, a marginal modal verb may be preceded by a central modal verb:
   *You **must** be joking.*
   (modal verb)
   *You will **have to** explain this.*
   (not a central modal verb, as preceded by a modal verb)

10. modal verbs are always followed by I. verb form, which are always in their I. ('basic' form, no agreement with the subject); central modals are followed – exclusively – by either the short (bare) infinitive (I. verb form) or a perfect infinitive construction (modal + *have* + III. verb form): *can breathe, must have arrived*; some marginal modals are followed by the long infinitive (*have to, ought to* and *used to*, in case the last one is considered a modal).
    *He **can do** this. *He **~~can does~~** this.*
    *He **can't have** done that. *He **~~can't has~~** done that.*

11. the position of certain adverbs (*always, never, sometimes*, etc.) may be a guide, as they either follow the strong, auxiliary and modal verbs or precede the weak verbs; in the most fortunate case, they are positioned between them:
    *I **have never understood** this positioning stuff…*

Feature (1) signals that they are stronger than any other verb type. All verbs take the *-s* in present tenses, third person singular, except for the modal verbs:

Strong verb	**Auxiliary verb**	**Weak verb**	**Modal verb**
I am here	*I have gone*	*I go*	*I can go*
*He **is** here*	*He **has** gone*	*He **goes***	*He can go*

Table 21. Verbs in Present tenses, third person singular

The table clearly shows that modal verbs disregard one of the most basic grammar rules, each of them having only one form for each person and number. This observation – completed with feature (8) – signals that they are strong enough not to allow the subject to establish a direct contact with the verb following the modal (auxiliary or weak), hence it is not possible to say: **He ~~can goes~~.*

[19] These four are called the NICE properties (negation, inversion, 'code', emphasis), cf. 86:333.

Features (1) and (2) also mean that modal verbs must not be listed among irregular verbs, a mistake that stems from a few dictionaries and grammar books. Once we have accepted that I. verb form coincides with Present Simple and II. verb form with Past Simple, we cannot apply this rule to modal verbs. They have no Past Participle (III. form), and *could*, *might*, *would* and *should* do not exclusively refer to 'past'; the examples clearly show that in vain did grammars 'force' modals to fit into the list of irregular verbs.

***Could** you be a bit more specific about the John Doe you have seen?*
(present request)
*You **can't** have seen the Jane Doe I have in mind*. (past impossibility)
*Jane **could** be in the barracks, as she is not here.* (present possibility)
John might get the promotion in 2049. (thin future possibility)
*Jane **may** have killed more than a dozen of the enemy last night.*
(presumption about the past)

Feature (3) is worth considering when a string of verbs is analysed; central modals are functionally stronger than all the other verb types (strong, auxiliary, weak or marginal modals). The longest string of verbs in English is five (although extremely rare, if ever justified):

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
modal	perfective *have*	passive *be*	continuous *be*	weak
could	*have*	*been*	*being*	*watched*

Table 22. Possible string of verbs

Each of the verbs is conditioned in form by the previous one (cf. 46:247). Our example lacks the passive voice component:

*Jane **could have been waiting** for John to pop the question for a long time.*

Features (4) and (5) might drive us to call them modal-auxiliary verbs, but modal is enough, knowing that they act like **operators** and still bear intrinsic meanings in affirmative, interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms:

*John **can** leave.*
***Can** John leave?*
*John **can't** leave.*
***Can't** John leave?*

A seminal research on categorisation[20] has driven is to realise that there are few clear-cut categories; in our case we can observe a gradual shift from central modals to marginal ones (30:21). For instance, central modal *can* lacks its perfective construction in the affirmative, even if it possible to use it in a negative structure:

*You **can't** have seen that movie.*

On the other hand, *may* is not used in negative present, *must* has no distinctive 'past' form,[21] while *ought* is followed by *to* (turning it into a marginal modal). Further marginal modals are *dare* and *need*, as they have weak versions as well, which are much more frequent:

*He **didn't dare to** tell the truth.* (non-modal use)
*He **daren't have told** the truth.* (modal use)

[20] Cf. Eleanor Rosch's prototype theory.
[21] The modal verb 'pairs' are not the present–past versions for a particular concept, to be discussed in Chapter 7.

Although there are grammars that discuss them as 'modal auxiliaries', we consider it important to differentiate auxiliary verbs from modal verb. It is vital to notice that the former ones have no meaning whatsoever, as they only have grammatical function, whereas modal verbs have clearly identifiable meanings, which are context-based: permission, (im)possibility, reproach, necessity, etc. When modals express these concepts, they are 'closer' to the weak verbs, as their meanings are combined:

*Jane and John **must understand** that they are partners.*

The example shows that the meaning of *understand* is combined with *must* and they affect the meaning of the entire sentence. In other cases (especially *will* and *would*), the modal verb meaning can be hardly separated from a certain 'future auxiliary' function, yet preserving the modal **volition**, be it weak or strong and expressing (un)certainty (cf. 48:112):

*I'm sure Jane **will be ready** for the task soon.*

Feature (5) states that modal verbs take over a specific function of auxiliary verbs (cf. 'modal-auxiliaries'): they also appear in elliptical short answers, having an anaphoric value (22:341–346). However, in the case of modals the answer is more meaning-based than syntactic, so it may be different than expected:

***Can** I **leave** now? Yes, you **can**. No, you **can't**.*
(short answer to avoid repetition, standard)
*The colonel **can be** impatient. Yes, he **can**, **can't** he.* (no question mark, ~ irony)
*Jane **can't** defeat them. Oh yes, she **can**.* (disagreement)
***Must** I always **be** the first? Yes, you **must**. No, you **needn't**.*
(negative answer expressing lack of necessity)
*Jane **would** accept it, **wouldn't** she?* (question tag)
*John **could** help him, **could** he?*
(comment tag, convinced about the truth when subject and predicate is repeated)
*John **would** defeat the enemy and Jane **would** too.* (addition to remark)
*John **would** defeat the enemy and so **would** Jane.* (addition to remark)
*John **could** blow up the camp. So **could** Jane!* (addition to remark)
*Jane **wouldn't** miss a chance to see a show, but John **would**.* (addition to remark)
*John **could** never hurt a baby. Neither **can** Jane. Nor **can** Jane.*
(addition to remark)
*Jane **couldn't** sleep the whole night; John **couldn't** either.* (addition to remark)

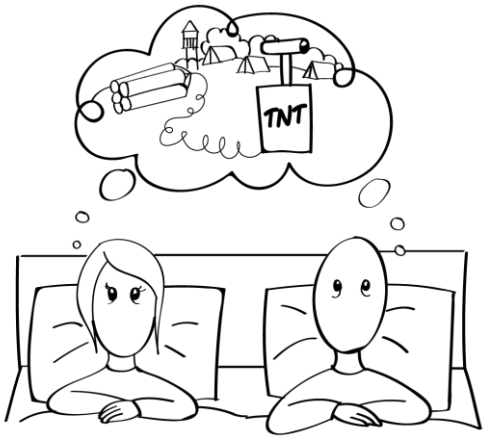

Illustration 5. Jane couldn't sleep

When extra meaning is encoded in replies, such as irony, surprise, doubt, etc., the basic rule of question tags (positive statement, negative tag and vice versa) is also broken:

*He **won't** harm her, **won't** he?*

Imperatives may also rely on modal verbs when questions tags are needed:

*Stop lying, **will** you?*
*Stop lying **won't** you?*
*Do be reasonable, **won't** you?*
***Let's** stop for now, **shall** we?*

Feature (9) has far-reaching consequences, namely the possible combinations of all verb types. As co-occurrence is not possible in case of modal verbs, it is important to see what happens when a modal verb is combined with an auxiliary. The first thing to note is that a modal always precedes an auxiliary, taking over its auxiliary functions forming the interrogative and negative:

Future Perfect Simple (see 2.11.) – Affirmative, Interrogative, Negative
John will have left before Jane arrives home.
Will John have leave before Jane arrives home?
John won't have left before Jane arrives home.

Should we consider *will* a 'pure' auxiliary – equal in functional value to auxiliaries –, it would be possible to have no fewer than four options for the interrogative (having in mind that *have* is an auxiliary, too):

***Will** I **have** gone?*
**__Have__ I __will__ gone?*
**__Will have__ I gone?*
**__Have will__ I gone?*

It is obvious that language is economic enough not to have four alternate constructions, and because only the first option is viable, we can conclude that the modal verb is characterised by inversion (Feature 4). Furthermore, it is worth 'dotting the i' by noticing that even the strong verb is 'exonerated'[22] from the interrogative and negative function when combined with a modal:

*Shrek **can be** happy anytime.*
***Can** Shrek **be** happy anytime?*
*Shrek **can't be** happy anytime*.

[22] First, we observe that it is not the only verb in the sentence. Then we realise that it is only the second verb in line, thus it cannot form the interrogative and negative. Not having any other alternative, we can only consider it a 'weakened' (strong) verb, caused by the presence of the preceding modal verb.

Illustration 6. Shrek can't be happy

The examples show that the strong verb lost its contact with the subject, as – under normal circumstances – the third person singular is followed by *is*. Thus modal verbs act like 'buffers', breaking the direct contact between the subject and any verb following the modal verb (He can write, He can't have seen, etc.).

While the central modals fulfil the most important (and the majority) of the features, marginal modals lack important ones and / or most of them. At this stage we only focus on their forms:

- *have to* cannot be considered a central modal, because it may be preceded by a central modal (rule of non-co-occurrence is violated; varying forms: *has to*, *had to*, etc.);
- *need* and *dare* may be used as weak verbs as well, making them marginal modals (*needs*, *dares*, *do / did* auxiliary); however, they express modal concepts of necessity and courage or impudence (speech acts), so they are modals semantically;
- *ought* is followed by the *to* particle, even if this disappears in question tags;
- *used to* has many features non-characteristic to modals (30:25), so it is "formally within the system, semantically has virtually nothing in common with the others" (30:3); based on these features, when meaning is considered, we discuss it within the framework of Past Simple (referring to habits that are no more valid in present, compared to *would*).

The importance and intricacy of modal verbs is also visible from the fact that entire books are dedicated to them (for instance, see 28, 30), usually focusing on three major descriptive types: a function-based description of modal verbs compared to non-modals, meanings of each modal verb and finally concepts they express.

In these approaches, their 'behaviour' is examined in affirmative, negative and interrogative constructions (see the formal features above), but it is more than that, as their relationship with tenses (expressing past, present and future time) must be dealt with.

A possible conclusion of this section is that – formally and functionally –, modal verbs are stronger than any other verb type, and their 'treatment' as a separate verb category is justified by certain factors:

- if a modal verb appears in combination with a weak verb, it acts like a special (meaningful) auxiliary (operator);
- if it is combined with auxiliary verbs, the major operator functions of the auxiliary verb are taken over (interrogative, negative).

In order to understand them better, we have to discuss modality and speech acts, which are beyond the range of the present chapter (involving **concepts** such as possibility, necessity, reproach or politeness). Thus we dedicate them a separate chapter, trying to emphasise how their meaning(s) may be identified within a sentence, but not before morpho-syntactically quintessential structures are discussed, such as tenses (direct speech, active voice), passive voice, conditional sentences, or hypothetical constructions. Hence further distinctive features of modal verbs are mentioned in Chapter 7.

1.5.4. Weak verbs

The terminology regarding this verb category is rather confusing, forcing us to abandon traditional grammar terms. The reasons are detailed below:

- at **syntactical** level, verbs may be categorised as 'full' verbs having **predicative** function (they can fully form the predicate alone). The category of **full** (or main, principal, notion, lexical, ordinary, primary, content, predicative) verbs express the 'central' meaning of the predicate, either being alone or as the last component of a verb phrase made up of two to five verbs;
- **semantically** viewed, 'full' verbs have their own meaning, thus it can form the predicate by itself only in the affirmative; however, when negative and interrogative forms are needed, auxiliaries or modals come to 'help'.

In our view, this verb category cannot be main (being preceded by at least one other verb in negatives and interrogatives); for similar reasons, they are not principal or full, while other terms are either too neutral (notion, ordinary, content) or restrictive (lexical).

Thus we refer to them with a more realistic term: **weak verbs**, signalling that they are too weak to precede the subject in interrogative or take the negative adverb not, which only follows strong, auxiliary or modal verbs (in affirmative, negative, interrogative and negative-interrogative):

*John Doe **loves** Jane.*
*Jane **cannot love** anyone else either.*
***Have** you ever **loved** a woman?*
***Don't** you **love** her?*

Although *been, being, done, doing, had* (III.), and *having* derive from strong and auxiliary verbs, they are 'weakened' forms, as they are 'always' preceded by an auxiliary verb (except for elliptical structures). Another perspective is that once all verbs must have been weak, but as language needs auxiliaries for specific constructions, specific forms are promoted to cover various grammatically necessary functions.

Weak verbs are either regular or irregular, taking *-(e)s* in the 3rd person singular of present tenses, also having Present Participle (*-ing*) and Past Participle (*-ed*) forms. As they show tense, person and number, they are finite verbs, connected to a subject in a sentence (6:16).

Thus a logical conclusion is that weak verbs are the ones which are neither strong, auxiliary, nor modal verbs; consequently, all the English verbs are weak (except for about 30), not forgetting that certain auxiliary and modal verbs may also be used as weak verbs having their own meanings, detailed in the following.

1.5.4.1. Weak *have*

While *have*, *do* and *let* are auxiliaries (cf. 1.5.2.), they may also function as weak verbs. *Have* is abundant in 'weak' meanings and may be split into four distinctive categories (cf. 40:187–206):

A. Stative *have*

1. 'possess' or states:
   *The Does **have** a large house.*

2. *have got* is used in BE (considered informal), which is perfective in form, non-perfective in meaning; while *have* is typical for habit, *have got* is often used for a particular occasion:
   I always have a break at 10.
   I have got a problem: my lawyer is in jail.

3. possession of physical characteristics:
   have a beard, ~ blue eyes, ~ long hair, ~ a scar, ~ a slim figure;

4. possession of mental / emotional qualities:
   have faith, ~ a good mind, ~ patience, ~ a quick temper;

5. family relationships / contact:
   *John **has (got)** no sisters, but he **has** a good dentist.*

6. illnesses:
   have a cold, ~ a bad headache, ~ measles;

7. arrangements:
   have an appointment, ~ a conference, ~ a date, ~ an interview, ~ a meeting, ~ time, ~ a holiday, ~ a day off, ~ a party;

8. express opinions:
   have an idea, ~ influence, ~ an objection, ~ an opinion, ~ a point of view, ~ a proposal, ~ a suggestion;

9. synonym for *there is*:
   *John **has (got)** no stains on his ties, as he never wears one.*
   *Jane **has (got)** sand in her hair being after the drill.*

B. Dynamic *have*

1. synonym (idioms) for 'let's' or 'enjoy':
   have a dance, ~ a fight, ~ a look, ~ a rest, ~ a ride, ~ a talk, ~ a (good / great / wonderful) time, ~ a swim, ~ a wash, ~ a nice evening, ~ fun, ~ a laugh, ~ a bath, ~ a shower, ~ a game, ~ a match, ~ a rest, ~ a lie-down, ~ a sleep, ~ a haircut, ~ a chat, ~ a conversation, ~ a drive, ~ a smoke, ~ a cigarette;

2. stylish synonym for ‘eat’:
   have breakfast, ~ lunch, ~ dinner, ~ a meal;

3. stylish synonym for ‘drink’:
   have a drink, ~ a tea, ~ a cup of coffee, ~ a beer, ~ a glass of wine;

4. stylish synonym for ‘take’:
   have milk in tea, ~ an answer, ~ a walk, ~ a ride, ~ a look at something;

5. stylish synonym for ‘give (birth)’:
   have a party, ~ a baby;

6. experience (difficult / problematic cases, feelings (typically negative):
   have a bad holiday, ~ an accident, ~ a bad dream, ~ a nightmare, ~ a bad day, ~ a disagreement, ~ a row, ~ a fight, ~ a quarrel, ~ a word with somebody, ~ a try, ~ a go, ~ difficulty (in), ~ trouble (+ I.*-ing), ~ a nervous breakdown, ~ a fit, ~ a shave, ~ an illness, ~ a disability, ~ a brainwave, ~ no clue, ~ information, ~ a bad effect on somebody, ~ a message, ~ an operation;*

C. Imperative *have*

1. offer:
   *Do **have** some oysters!*

2. suggestion:
   ***Have** a break!*

3. encouragement:
   ***Have** a go!*[23]
   *Come on, **have** a shot (at it)!*

4. good wishes:
   ***Have** fun / a good time / a good day!*

5. refusal to accept things or denying permission:
   *Jane **won’t have** John enter(ing) the house in boots.*
   *I **won’t have** them doing what they like.*
   *I **won’t have** you talk to me like that!*

D. Idiomatic *have*:

*John’s **had** us again! (‘trick’)*
*There’s room for your clothes and what **have** you. (‘similar stuff’)*
*Rumour **has** it … (It is said…)*

1.5.4.2. Weak *do*

The most obvious weak meaning of *do* is connected to *make* (*realise, deal with, execute, finish, work*), but other meanings (connected to lexical meaning) are worth mentioning:

- fixed expressions, proverbs or idioms:[24]

[23] Or the famous slogan in 1957: ***Have** a Break. **Have** a Kit Kat.*
[24] Cf. 40:187–206, 42:85.

*How **do** you **do**?*[25]
*What **do** you **do** (for a living)? (~ What's your job?)*
***Do** you **do** much to earn it?*
*We **do**n't **do** very well now…*
*How many miles **does** it **do** to the gallon?*
*How's he **do**ing? (~ How is he getting on?)*
*I'll **do** my best.*
*When in Rome, **do** as the Romans **do**.*
*Be / Have **done** now!*
*Well begun is half **done**.*
*I have **done** with you!*
*His work **done**, he went to see a film.*
*Jane always **does** her hair in the morning.*
*It is not something to **do** with her job.*
*I could **do** with some help. (I would like some help.)*
*You can't **do** without a smart phone these days.*
*It's got nothing to **do** with me. (It **doesn't** concern me).*
*Shall I **do** your room out? (~ Shall I clean it?)*
*You **did** me out of my birth rights!*
*I was **do**ne! (You cheated me!)*

- a further meaning is associated with *convene, suitable, be enough, (not) acceptable*:
  *Will I **do**? This would **do**. That'll **do**. Will a candle **do**?*
  *This answer simply **won't do** for a passing grade.*

- in order to avoid repeating the weak verb and its object or complement, we can use the formal expression *do so, do it* or *do that* (cf. 42:53–54):
  *Tell him that you love him. I've already **done so / it / that**.*

- activities that need time or are repeated may be referred to with do, followed by a gerund (40:187–206, 42:85):
  *Jane **does** her shopping alone, but she needs help with the washing up.*
  *John had **done** some miles before he took a break.*
  *They **do** a lot of practising together.*

- *do* may express disapproval or that something is in the wrong place (cf. 16: 244–250):
  *What on earth are you **doing** with my clothes?*
  *What are the clothes **doing** on the floor?*

Furthermore, a considerable effort is usually made by language learners to distinguish expressions with *do* and *make*.[26] Even if there are remarks that *do* is 'more general' than *make* (or more connected to theory), and *make* is closer to physical activities, the best advice is to check them in dictionaries. The following word-clouds contain samples from thousands of possible expressions:

[25] This is a formal greeting; the first *do* is auxiliary, the second *do* is weak; however, it is an idiomatic expression, meaning 'Pleased to meet you.'
[26] Cf. 35:56, 58:170–191.

Word cloud 3. Weak *do*

Make may refer to many things (create, construct, typically an isolated event); a typical mistake made by non-native English speakers (usually deriving from their native language) related to the use of *make* is ~~**make a photo~~ instead of *take a photo / picture*.

Word cloud 4. *Make*

In our view, the most interesting expression involving both *do* and *make* is the following:

***Make do** without further examples.*

1.5.4.3. Weak *need*

Although *need* is viewed as a marginal modal verb, it mostly functions as a weak verb, requiring auxiliaries to form interrogative and negative constructions:

*I **need** more time. Why **do** you **need** more time?*
*Jane **doesn't need** any help with the task.*
*John **needs** some help with the psychological test.*
*Jane **needed** medical care, so she was taken to hospital.*
*John **didn't need** to worry about her.* (absence of obligation in the past, 12:133)
*Anyway, they **will need** to explain it to the colonel.*
*The report **wont' need** too many details.*

The weak *need* is also used in passive constructions, followed by either a gerund or a passive infinitive verb form (cf. 3.8.4.):

Students need supervising.
*Incidents **need to be reported** instantly.*

1.5.4.4. Weak *dare*

Similarly to the case of *need*, the weak *dare* may be considered as a variant of the marginal modal *dare* (cf. 3:13.); today the weak version is more popular, its meaning ranging from courage to impudence:

*'Who **Dares** Wins.'* (motto of the SAS army corps)
*Jane never **dares** to face the captain.*
*John **doesn't dare** to contradict Jane.*
*John hardly **dares** to contradict Jane.*
*The captain **didn't dare** to face John.*
***Do** you **dare** to call me names?*
***Did** you **dare** to call me names?*
***Don't** you **dare** to tell me that it is not your fault!*
*How **do** you **dare** to challenge my authority?*
You wouldn't have dared to do it ten years ago.
*I won't eat this spinach. You **dare**!* (mother to children)

Illustration 7. I won't eat this spinach

1.5.4.5. Weak used to

The function and use of *used to* may be puzzling: there are grammars that do not include them at all among modal verbs, while others list it among marginal modals. However, marginal modal verbs lack many forms, which is the case of *used to* as well. Functionally, it may be considered a weak verb, as it is combined with the auxiliary *do* in interrogation and negation:

*When I was a child I **didn't use to** go to concerts.*
***Did** they **use to** smoke a lot in their youth?*

The complete picture regarding used to is shaped by its temporal (cf. 2.5.) and modal (Chapter 7) possibilities. This is possible due to the fact that even verbs are characterised by a certain "gradience" (36:147–148), thus it is possible for the same verb to belong to various categories when the point of reference changes (e.g. *need*, *be*, *have*, etc.).

The following table summarises the formal and functional classification of verbs:

Form	Verb	Function	Verb
I.	*see*	strong	*be*
II.	*saw*	auxiliary	*do*
III.	*seen*	modal	*must*
-s	*sees*	semi-aux. / mod.	*is about to*
-ing	*seeing*	weak	*marry*
regular	*show*		
irregular	*go*		

Table 23. Verbs forms and functions

1.6. Verb combinations

We have learnt that verb order (string of verbs) is highly important, as some variants are possible, while others are not, and a possible change in word order leads to change in meaning (cf. 75:28).

There are only two verb tenses that are formed with a single verb (Present Simple and Past Simple, see sections 2.1. and 2.5.). We know that if we have a single verb in a grammatically correct (non-elliptical) affirmative sentence, it must be either a strong verb (*am, are, is, was, were*) or a weak one. However, if these two tenses contain a weak verb, they need an auxiliary verb to form the negative or interrogative. A modal or an auxiliary verb stands alone only in elliptical short answers, whose weak verb must always be recoverable from the context.

All the other tenses are formed using a combination of at least two verbs, called the verb phrase. A verb phrase may contain the combination of one weak (Ⓦ) verb and one or more auxiliary (Ⓐ) verbs, and no more than one central modal (Ⓜ) verb. Thus the longest possible combination is five verbs, although this is a very rare case (and hardly justified or "unusual" 37:396).

Verb combinations follow a "relatively fixed" order (30:203), for instance no auxiliary, strong or weak, can precede modal verbs, and a certain 'domino-effect' may be observed as each verb position signals its function:

		Perfective	**Passive**	**Continuous**		
S	Ⓜ	Ⓐ	Ⓐ	Ⓐ	Ⓦ	
John	*must*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*tortured*	*by …*
		I.	III.	*-ing*	III. / *-ed*	

Table 24. Verb combinations

The table displays the 'MAW' properties of verbs in the theoretically possible word order, and in case the string of verbs is less than five, the order is still preserved:

1. Ⓜ / Ⓐ + Ⓐ+ Ⓐ + Ⓦ → *will have been enjoying*
   This time next month I'll have been enjoying the landscape in Denmark for a year.

2. Ⓜ + Ⓐ + Ⓐ + Ⓦ → *should have been playing*
   You shouldn't have been playing with those lion cubs for a month.

3. Ⓜ + Ⓐ + Ⓦ → *must be working*
   John is nowhere to be found; he must be working undercover.

4. Ⓐ + Ⓐ + Ⓦ (Perfect Continuous tenses) → *have been watching*
   Jane has been watching the thugs for two hours now.

5. Ⓜ + Ⓦ → *should listen*
   Children should listen to their parents.

6. Ⓐ + Ⓦ (for Continuous, Perfect Simple tenses or Passive constructions):
   The baby was crying at 3 a.m. I haven't seen her. Dinner is served.

7. a special verb combination is Ⓜ + Ⓢ ('weakened' strong): → *can be*
   Grammar can be difficult.

The examples above show the complementation of each verb type:

- modal verbs may only be followed by I. verb form (i.e. the bare infinitive, except for *ought to* or *used to*);
- modal verbs are the strongest verb types, as they only accept the infinitive form of the following verb; example 3 above (*must be working*) shows that modals are stronger than the auxiliaries (*be* is the common form for each person), and the example below demonstrates that modals are stronger than the strong verb:
  *Jane **is** happy. ~~*Jane **can is** happy.~~ Jane **can be** happy.*
- the perfect auxiliary *have* family (*have, has, had*) always requires III. verb form or the *-ed* ending;
- the continuous auxiliary *be* family (*am, are, is, was, were, be*) is always followed by the I. + *-ing* verb form;
- passive auxiliaries (*am, are, is, was, were, be*) are always followed by the III. verb form (or *-ed*).

Although this categorisation is somewhat different from other verb classifications,[27] it proved to be 'functional' (99:8–11). Yet, this type of classification needs further remarks:

- any verb in its III. or *-ing* form can be neither strong nor auxiliary; as once a verb appears in one of these forms, it means that it is preceded by another – typically auxiliary – verb (*be, am, are, is, was, were, have, has*), which takes over its function; hence we can talk about 'weakened' forms (*be, been, being, done, doing*, etc.);
- this is also the case when preceded by a non-finite (e.g. Participle) form:
  ***Having** been prepared for lunch, they were disappointed seeing the empty plates.*
- as each verb combination is rather restricted, sentence analysis connected to verbs should not be problematic:
  ***Firing** guns is typical of the Does.* (non-continuous)
  *John heard his spouse **firing** guns.* (continuous)

[27] Cf. 3:11–21; 11:255–260, 383–456; 12:11, 105–113; 14:5–8; 33:105–152, 315–352; 36:93–172; 37:301–308.

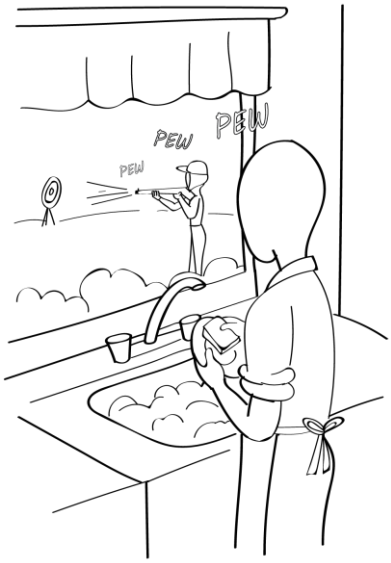

Illustration 8. John heard his spouse

It is also visible that whatever categories we establish, a certain fuzziness (cf. cognitive grammar) will be preserved. In our case, *be* may be either strong or auxiliary, *do* and *have* may be either auxiliary or weak, while *will* is the auxiliary for the future tenses, but in fact it is a modal verb. This might be the reason why certain grammars refer to modal verbs as modal-auxiliaries.

At this stage it is also obvious that a unified classification system of the English verbs is not possible, due to the multiple levels of grammar within which they are discussed. Occasionally, Syntax, Morphology, or Semantics can be hardly separated, and it may prove difficult to think of an auxiliary verb irrespective of its context.

Once we accept that clearly distinguished categories do not exist, we will understand the seemingly double instances of the "same" verbs:

*What **do** you **do**?*
*I **have had** enough of this grammar introduction.*

Fuzzy categories are all around us, and English grammar is not an exception either, abounding in overlapping categories. For instance, the so-called operators (anomalous finites) may be auxiliary verbs (*be, am, are, is, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did,* except for *let*) and modal verbs alike (*can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought to, need, dare,* without *used to*).

Operators are used to form interrogative and negative structures, but they are also used for emphasis and may be abbreviated combined with *not* (although *mayn't* and *usedn't to* are dated). The following examples show different functions of these verbs:

*Jane Doe **is** at home.* (strong, ~ 'existence')
*Jane Doe **is** singing a duet with John Doe.* (auxiliary, lexically empty)
*Jane Doe **does** the household chores.* (weak, ~ 'make')
***Does** John Doe help her in the household?* (auxiliary, lexically empty)
*How **do** you **do**?* (first auxiliary, second weak)
*Jane Doe **has** two daughters.* (strong, ~ 'possess')
*John Doe **has** met Jane Doe in secret.* (auxiliary)
*John Doe **has to** marry Jane Doe.* (modal, resulting in modified lexical meaning)

It is easy to observe that *is* stands alone in the first sentence, having its own existential meaning (probably a separate word when translated into other languages as well). *Is* functions as an auxiliary in the second example, accompanied by another verb; consequently, it only has grammatical function, not being translated with a separate word.

Last but not least we should discuss verbs in a larger context, that is phrase or sentence level (syntax). Verbs in syntax are highly important in Subject–Predicate (cf. verb classification based on predication, 22:349) and Verb–Object relationships, including complete and incomplete ones, the latter leading to transitive, intransitive verbs (combined with prepositions such as *ask for* or adverbial particles such as *think so*), or reflexive verbs (*establish oneself in*). However, this system may be more complicated,[28] exemplified below:

1. transitive verbs (that can take one object): *drink tea, eat lemon*;

2. transitive verbs due to a compulsory preposition (22:370):
   charge sy with crime, entrust sy with sg;

3. ditransitive verbs (that can take two objects):
   buy a dress for someone / buy someone a dress
   send a mail to someone / send someone a mail
   write a mail to someone / write someone a mail;

4. transitive and intransitive pairs (22:356):
   fall, fell, fallen – fell, felled, felled; fly, flew, flown – overfly, overflew, overflown
   lie, lay, lain – lay, laid, laid; sit, sat, sat – set, set, set
   look – overlook; snow – besnow

5. causative verbs (special transitives, cf. 22:362): *stand a ladder against the wall, float a boat on the river, fell trees, fly a kite, enlarge, darken, lengthen, magnify, terrify, simplify, fertilize, humanize, immobilize, cause sy do sg, determinate sy do sg, get sy do sg, make sy do sg, have sy do sg, cause sg to do sg, make sg do sg, have sg do sg;*

6. intransitive verbs with reflexive forms (reflexive verbs due to the reflexive pronoun): *bathe, brace herself, behave, cut, dress, hide, overeat, oversleep, please oneself, rest, spread, twine, wash*;

7. intransitive verbs may turn transitive due to a (compulsory) prepositional particle:
   go through, remind someone of, prevent someone from;

8. intransitive verbs may turn transitive due to a cognate object:
   sleep the sleep of a happy man;

9. another special subset of semi-auxiliaries is referred to as ‘modal expressions’:
   be able to, have (got) to; are: had better, had best, had rather, have to, have got to, had to;

[28] Cf. 3:182–186; 8:78-88, 11:255–264, 383–401, 444–456; 17:130–172; 22:354–380; 37:301–308, 395–436, 504–508.

10. reflexive verbs followed by 'oneself':
    cut himself, enjoy themselves, help yourselves, hurt ourselves;

11. eventive reflexive verbs:
    get, grow, be, become (dark), thaw, pale, blush, redden, fade;

12. verbs related to the object (22:355–357):
    wave one's hand, succeed in making sy talk, wish to avoid sg;

13. verbs related to the subject (22:355–357):
    He reddened. She shivered. He was delighted. He looked delighted.
    The train stopped.

14. passive constructions (cf. causative verbs):
    get hurt

15. passive intransitive verbs:
    The shop opens at 9. The book has been found. The lid won't shut.

16. impersonal reflexive verbs:
    John is said to be crazy. You never can tell …
    They think it was a ghost. It appears that Jane was right.

17. reciprocal reflexive verbs (S & O are interchangeable):
    divorce, quarrel, fight, marry, meet, make up, love, hate + each other; date, fight, join, divorce, fuck, kiss, overlap, cross, embrace, hug, marry, touch, cuddle, engage, intersect, match, wed; compete with, flirt with, differ from, engage with, go with, talk to / with;

18. pseudo-intransitive (quasi-passive) constructions making use of specific verb meanings (*clean, close, cook, drink, drive, fold, iron, keep, open, pack, photograph, print, read, sell, store, washing-up*), exemplified below:
    The blouse washes well. This shirt irons easily / well.
    The novel / book sells well / by the billions. The story reads well.
    The door wouldn't open. My skin burns easily.

19. 'mixed' verbs (22:372), that is both transitive & intransitive sense (*charge, sleep*):
    This one charges batteries within an hour.
    They charged the fortress massively. (~ attack)
    This cottage can sleep 12 people.
    She sleeps like a log / top.

20. ergative verbs (*begin, burn, dry, fry, melt, open, turn, unite*):
    The door opened.

21. transitive–ergative pairs are:
    bake, boil, change, cook, break, drop, light, tear, vary;

22. factitive verbs express actions triggered by the subject, resulting in a certain quality or get to a certain state (cf. 22:364):
    whiten, lengthen, quicken;

23. these verbs may be used in a syntactic construction:
    appoint by captain, paint the fence white, call, choose, elect, make, create, paint, set, fling, burst, break, drink, provoke to anger, talk into doing sg, read sy to sleep;

24. some transitive verbs (*study, paint, smoke, draw, read, cook, iron, drink, build*, etc.*)* may turn 'objectless', by not mentioning their object for various reasons; the object may be too obvious to 'bother' with it; the elliptical object may leave a lot of space to imagination; a humorous situation is created by the lack of object:
    Fiona isn't studying. (She's waiting for Prince Charming in the tower…)
    Shrek is ironing. (Once he is married …)
    Donkey is cooking. (Would you taste it?)
    The Does are smoking. (What?)
    The colonel is drinking. (What's in the bottle?)

Illustration 9. The colonel is drinking

To make matters worse, the terms referring to the verb types do not reflect their function; moreover, we have already seen that their categorisation often overlaps, as each 'special' verb is a member of at least two functional groups.

Thus we accept that although functional, the English verb system is intricate, even if we disregard certain grammatical categories (e.g. phonetics – differences between nouns and verbs, or pragmatics – pragmatic functions of verbs), which are beyond our quest. Yet we are still to deal with **meaning** (Semantics), which is of primary importance. After all, "language is not about forms, but about meaning" and language teaching must focus on meaning (75:179).

We consider that in case verbs are discussed within morphology or syntax, their function is primary, thus – however inadequate – the terms above are well-established and we would have liked to offer a somewhat logical description of them summarised in the following table:

Verb – Object				**Sentence / Clause**		
transitive	*marry*	passive	*get hurt*	finite verb predicate	tense	*thinks*
ditransitive	*buy*	quasi-passive	*sell well*		person	
causative	*terrify*	reciprocal	*marry*		number	
intransitive	*go*	ergative	*dry*		mood	
(in)transitive	*run*	factitive	*quicken*	non-finite verb verbal non-predicate	infinitive	*to marry*
reflexive	*enjoy oneself*	objectless	*study*		gerund	*marrying*
eventive-reflexive	*redden*				participle	

Table 25. Verbs and Syntax

1.7. Verb Conjugation

1.7.1. Introduction

The morpho-syntactic approach to verbs discusses them as **verb phrases**, distinguishing **simple** ones (one word), which may express tenses (Present Simple and Past Simple), the **imperative** mood and the **present subjunctive** mood, while **complex** (or compound) ones are made up of two to five words (two, three or four auxiliary verbs before the meaningful verb), forming all the other tenses and further grammatical constructions (passive voice, modal constructions, etc.). However, there are definitions in which verb phrase refers to 'more than one part'.

At sentence level, verbs are often referred to as **finite** (personal) or **non-finite** (non-personal, infinitive) verbs. While non-finite forms cannot express the predicate alone, the former ones are 'finite' as they are limited or bound to their subject, taking part in syntactic constructions by the following six characteristics: **person**, **number**, **mood**, **tense**, **aspect** and **voice** (active, passive and causative, detailed in Chapter 3), collectively referred to as conjugation.

Although the majority of grammars list the above six verb categories, there are views that **modality** should be mentioned as a seventh option (46:79–80), even if it is mainly a semantic category, dealing with two major types of judgements: factuality (certainty, possibility, probability) and non-factuality or control (ability, permission, intention, obligation). Whatever the case, it is certain that verb function and meaning are connected. For instance, the previously discussed non-durative (meaning) verbs cannot be used in continuous / progressive tenses, and passive voice is only functional with transitive verbs.

Once we can identify at least one of these six features, it means that the verb is **conjugated**. However, compared to certain (agglutinative) languages, English offers rather limited possibilities for grammatical conjugation; most notable are the various forms of be, then the *-(e)s*, *-(e)d*, *-ing* forms, completed with the irregular verbs (see section 1.4.2.). Hence the complex / compound verb phrases are important, when the combination of auxiliaries refer to grammatical differences.

There are three types of **person** and two types of **number**, resulting in verbs following:

1. the first person singular *I*;
2. the second person singular *you*;
3. the third person singular *he* (masculine), *she* (feminine), *it* (neutral);
4. the first person plural *we*;
5. the second person plural *you*;
6. the third person plural *they*;

We refer to person and number as 'obvious' and 'simple' because English is not characterised by **inflections**, which means that verb forms are little affected by the person and number (hence English is usually considered an 'easy' language). Instead, auxiliaries are highly important to construct **tense** (Chapter 2) and **voice** (Chapter 3), while **mood** – heavily relying on verb forms – is discussed in Chapter 4.

1.7.2. Time, tense and aspect

1.7.2.1. Time and tense

The reason for this section is due to the fact that the English **tense** (grammatical idea) does not coincide with **time**, which is "an element of our experience of reality" (75:47). It is not our aim to mix philosophy and linguistics, but at this point it is worth clarifying – at least to a little degree – the difference between time and tense and its relevance regarding the English tense system.[29]

One of the major chapters in philosophy deals with time, as it is connected to human existence, and human beings have been trying to understand the concept of time from the earliest times. Although the struggles try to be as objective as possible, time is based on experience, which is rather subjective: humans are tied to a limited time span (cf. history), and even the experience of the 'linear' time is problematic: it may be envisaged as a point (a non-extended event) or a segment, and traditionally it may be divided into **past**, **present** and **future**.

Although we would like to talk about **logical time** (cf. 2:7–9), which is a universal, linear, non-linguistic concept, our subjective relationship with it may prove to be more powerful. A classical quote from Augustine of Hippo dates from the early 5th century:

> For what is time? Who can easily and briefly explain it? Who can even comprehend it in thought or put the answer into words? Yet is it not true that in conversation we refer to nothing more familiarly or knowingly than time? And surely we understand it when we speak of it; we understand it also when we hear another speak of it.
> **What, then, is time? If no one asks me, I know what it is. If I wish to explain it to him who asks me, I do not know.** Yet I say with confidence that I know that if nothing passed away, there would be no past time; and if nothing were still coming, there would be no future time; and if there were nothing at all, there would be no present time. But, then, how is it that there are the two times, past and future, when even the past is now no longer and the future is now not yet? But if the present were always present, and did not pass into past time, it obviously would not be time but eternity. If, then, time present – if it be time – comes into existence only because it passes into time past, how can we say that even this is, since the cause of its being is that it will cease to be? Thus, can we not truly say that time is only as it tends toward nonbeing. (Augustine *Confessions*, 433, Ps. 2:7; Book 11, Ch. XIV)

Augustine also draws our attention to the passage of time, even if he argues that only present time can be "perceived and measured". However, we can distinguish – at least in

[29] I am greatly indebted to Imre Ungvári-Zrínyi for offering me valuable insights into the philosophical approach to time.

theory – **real** time from **imaginary** time (75:47), which includes both past and future, as well as fiction.

The use of *now*, as the starting point of discussions about time is rather subjective, as it may be conceived of as a point (no duration involved) or a segment (extended time with duration, including a period before and after 'now'):

*I can see you **now**.* (but you were not visible a moment ago)
*It's shining **now**.* (started a while ago and will probably continue)

We can observe that *now* is as objective as possible in these examples, but it may turn highly subjective in the following examples:

*I don't want to cook **now**.*
*I live with my parents **now**.*
***Now** is the time to invest in shares.*

If we accept that even *now* is subjective, we can reach the conclusion that time (on both sides of *now*) is also subjective, leading to a subjective psychological time, which is "the way we perceive the action, which is important" from our point of view, not what "objectively happened" (75:49), being aware that on the one hand very few things happen 'instantaneously' (*realise, understand*), while on the other hand the extent of particular actions is relative to personal judgements.

As the passage of time is due to subjective experience, so is **tense**, which is the grammatical attempt to represent experiences or passage of time. However, we will see that although we can distinguish past, present and future time, English only has two tenses: Present Simple (I. form) and past Simple (II. form), while other concepts are expressed with auxiliary verbs. This means that English has no **future** tense (cf. 2.9.) so it is logical to conclude that even these two tenses do not always refer to 'present' or 'past' time per se (cf. 75:47):

John and Jane start the mission at 4 a.m.
(formally present tense referring to future time)
If I were you …
(formally past tense referring to present or future time)

More headache is caused when we split subjective present, past and future time into subjective tenses, as English distinguishes **finished** and **unfinished** actions (complete vs. incomplete), **unique** and **repeated** actions, or events including or excluding *now*, but we should also mention differences between 'point' and 'period', 'simultaneous' and 'successive' events (75:48–50), leading to at least twelve tenses and other constructions related to expressing time.

While native speakers of English do not usually think about the variety of tenses they use, language learners often think of present tenses referring to present time, which is not the case. Yet, due to inadequate (but nevertheless deeply-rooted) terminology, it is very difficult to make them aware that English tense names are never to be taken 'as such' and should never be translated.

After all, twelve tenses and other constructions (most notably *am / are / is going to*) refer to "subtle shades of time distinction" (48:99) in past, present and future, so overlaps naturally appear; for instance, Present Perfect Continuous covers actions started in the past and extending into the future, but 'narrated' in the present time, which leads us to consider aspect as well.

1.7.2.2. Tense and aspect

Aspect in English is connected to **tense** (they are "always combined" 46:254), and their possible combinations lead to a rather complex system. Aspect reflects how the verb action or event "is regarded or experienced with respect to time" (36:188, 49:92), or how "time is viewed by the speaker or writer" (46:81). Aspect is visible at phrase level (combination of at least two verbs, one of which is an auxiliary verb), and we can distinguish **perfect** and **continuous** (progressive) aspect (46:206), resulting in four options:

1. **simple** aspect typically refers to a single completed event or action, but it includes repeated actions, permanent or complete events, habits, series of events or facts, universal statements as well (cf. 68:9);

2. **perfect simple** aspect (perfective) is a special construction typically associated with finished or complete actions and events before other ones, often referred to as expressing results or life experience; this is a rather complex aspect, as the 'finished' action derives from the combination of past and present, past and future or present and future, so perfect verb forms "explicitly link an earlier action or event with a later situation" but "the exact time of the action or event is either irrelevant or disregarded. The important elements are not time when, but the occurrence of the action itself and the results or state of affairs produced by it" (67:149);

3. **continuous** aspect is (progressive, durative) used for actions (still) going on at a definite moment (action in progress), or unfinished, uncompleted actions, which can be disturbed or interrupted, but it "primarily emphasises duration, repetition, beginning of an action taking up time or temporary, 'out of order' (extraordinary) events with limited duration and sometimes with (predominantly negative) emotional colouring" (46:254), making us "aware of the passing of time" (67:148);

4. **perfect continuous** or perfect progressive aspect is similar to the previous aspect, but it is completed with **duration**, by which we know the extent of the action (chiefly signalled by for or since).

It is worth mentioning that verbs 'not normally' used in continuous are typically 'back-shifted', so they may only be used in simple or perfect simple aspects.

A few grammar books mention a fifth possibility, the so-called **frequentative** aspect (17:167), specifically referring to the meaning of *used to* + I. verb form (referring to frequent actions in the past, but 'never again' due to various reasons) and *would* + I. verb form (referring to more frequent actions in the past, less frequent in present). However, these meanings are discussed within Past Simple uses (see section 2.5.), and modern grammars do not mention it as a separate aspect.

Aspect offers a "greater insight into the speaker's interpretation of the temporal aspects" (75:51), as one of the four choices depends on a rather subjective interpretation of time, so it is not based "on a rigid set of grammatical rules", rather "on the speaker's viewpoint" (40:50–51); if the event is viewed as a whole or complete (67:149), a simple verb form is justified, while temporary actions or actions in progress (focusing either on duration or its uncompleted state) are expressed with continuous aspect, which "may be restricted by limitations in the meaning of the verb (such as *contain* or *crash* cf. 40:51, 68:149)":

Jane likes classical music.
John is sleeping in a tent.
The colonel has been trying to reach them for three hours.
We'll be enjoying the sunshine from 2 p.m.

However, actions in progress may be interrupted (cf. 68:149):
While I'm watching the TV you can drop by.

The inherent meaning of a few verbs is connected to activities extending in time, so their continuous use is optional:
I have lived / have been living / live with my parents since I was born.
I have worked / have been working / work for this company for six years.

The inherent meaning of a few verbs is connected to point-like events (not extending in time) may change and turn durative:
John broke his forearm during the fight.
Dawn was breaking.
Her voice was breaking with pain while recollecting last night's events.

To conclude with, aspect may be regarded as a verb form "involving the use of an auxiliary", connected to the temporal nature of the action: incomplete versus complete (75:51), but referring to a subjective, psychological time through the speaker's perception of the event (cf. 75: 85).

Having described the first building blocks of a comprehensible utterance in English, we tend to think that we are prepared for the next challenge, the English tense system, trying every non-native speaker's patience and energy, where form, function combine with (intended) meaning(s).

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2. A LOGICAL ENGLISH TENSE SYSTEM

The relationship between time and tense has led us to conclude that the choice of tenses is rather subjective, as it depends on the speaker's point of view, experience or involvement in the event. Thus we agree that we should approach grammar as not only a "matter of fact" (75:41) but also as an 'activated option' or "choice" (75:42).

On the one hand, it is a **fact** that the plural form of *fox* is *foxes* or the II. form of *drive* is *drove*, while it is a **choice** to say:

You've become a father.
You have a daughter.

Illustration 10. You've become a father

Choice is highly important when discussing many grammar issues, such as tenses, active or passive voice, various modal options, pervaded by subjective interpretations of the speakers.

This way tenses may be "tricky" (55:91) – especially for language learners – when compared to either the speaker's or listener's expectations as the particular selection of tense may reveal an "interpretation of the situation" (75:40). The level to which we (mis)interpret tenses and sentences may be connected to our language comprehension or "understanding of the situation, intentions, and interpretation of the facts" (cf.75:42).

Tenses are constructed with the help of verbs, and while Chapter 1 deals with verbs, the aim of this chapter is to discuss verb forms, verb phrases and verb meanings 'embedded' in sentences, and how they convey various meanings by themselves or combined with each other (in the majority of cases), as "we can hardly say that there are pure tenses, pure moods or pure aspects; two or three of these kinds of meaning are always inseparably present in any given verb form." (48:137).

In a strict sense, "English has only two tenses of the verb – present and past – if tense is defined as being shown by a verb inflection" (46:206, 253). However, time may be expressed by other grammatical categories as well (46:253):

- auxiliary and modal verbs;
- adverbs: *now*, *tomorrow*;
- prepositional phrases: *before June*;
- noun phrases: *last week*;
- clauses: when we saw them.

The view that English has only two tenses is unsustainable from the point of language users (especially learners), and we need a different approach, according to which we can differentiate **present**, **past** and **future** time, thus the number of English tenses is the result of **time** and **aspect** combinations, even if tense is "often only loosely related to time" (40:159):

TIME	ASPECT
Present Past Future	Simple Continuous Perfect Simple Perfect Continuous

Table 26. Time & aspect combinations

Based on this table, twelve possibilities arise, leading to the **system of English tenses**:

TENSE	(main) auxiliary	Structure
① Present Simple	*do, does*	I.
② Present Continuous	*am, are, is*	AM / ARE / IS + I.-*ing*
③ Present Perfect Simple	*have, has*	HAVE / HAS + III.
④ Present Perfect Continuous	*have, has*	HAVE / HAS BEEN + I.-*ing*
⑤ Past Simple	*did*	II.
⑥ Past Continuous	*was, were*	WAS / WERE + I.-*ing*
⑦ Past Perfect Simple	*had*	HAD + III
⑧ Past Perfect Continuous	*had*	HAD BEEN + I.-*ing*
⑨ Future Simple	*will*	WILL + I.
⑩ Future Continuous	*will*	WILL BE + I.-*ing*
⑪ Future Perfect Simple	*will*	WILL HAVE + III.
⑫ Future Perfect Continuous	*will*	WILL HAVE BEEN + I.-*ing*

Table 27. The English Tense System

We should remember (Chapter 1) that I., II. and III. refer to verb forms in the list of irregular verbs, knowing that the II. and III. verb forms of regular verbs end in *-ed* or *-d* (when the I. verb form ends in 'e': *like*, *hike*, etc.).

To make matters worse, there are a few grammar books that deal with sixteen tenses (33:106, 12:16–17, 23:474–476), as they consider that certain conditional constructions (the so-called Future-in-the-Past) are tenses:

Present Conditional – would work
Present Conditional Continuous – would be working
Perfect Conditional – would have worked
Perfect Conditional Continuous – would have been working

We tend to think that it is unnecessary to extend the list of twelve tenses this way, as these four constructions are discussed within Chapter 5 about conditional structures.

The other side of the coin is represented by those grammarians, who state that "English has two tenses: present tense and past tense" (29:84), "English has no future form of the verb in addition to present and past forms" (36:176) or English conjugation system is based on present and past (11:261). Although we basically agree with it, for practical reasons we take the side of non-native users of English, hence we cannot 'get rid of' either the compound present and past or the 'future' tenses.

A different kind of problem is dealing with particular ***be*** constructions: *be to, be about to, be bound to, be due to, and be going to*. While the first four may be treated as expressions referring to the future (still far from being treated as 'lexical items'), the last one – for logical reasons – should be mentioned in connection with Future Simple, because their meanings are in a strong connection. Thus we consider, it is worth discussing it as tense ⑬ (called **going to** future), where the auxiliary is *am, are, is,* and the full structure is *am / are / is going to* + I. verb form.

Furthermore, there are fuzzy categories, as certain constructions are formally different from their meaning:

- Present Simple, future time, cf. 2.9.:
  *Jane will help John when he **gets** there.*
- Passive Voice is formally constructed by any auxiliary verb form of *be* or *have*, followed by III. verb form (the weak verb), while its meaning may be past, present and future (cf. Chapter 3):
  *Donkey is **helped** by Shrek.*
- Past Simple, present time (cf. Chapter 5):
  *If you **loved** me, this wouldn't be a problem.*
- Past Simple, present / future time (cf. Chapter 6):
  *It is high time we **stopped** here.*
- modal verbs may refer to past, present or future time (cf. Chapter 7):
  *Shrek **could** help Donkey to escape from the soldiers.*
  *Shrek **could** help Donkey again.*
  (either now or in the future)

Thus English may seem 'easy' at first (almost void of inflections), but still there are levels for non-native speakers (pre-intermediate versus advanced), and grammar knowledge is a basic watershed in this respect: the more we know about auxiliaries, their functions and possible combination the more advanced we become, hoping to recover from the shock of the multitude of English tenses.

When people say that English grammar is not their strong point, this is often due to the English tense system, accompanied by further issues deriving from the tense system, such as **passive voice**, **conditional sentences**, **hypothetical constructions**, **modal verbs**, or **reported speech**.

Having in mind that there is a threefold division of universal time and many more tenses, we can logically reach the conclusion: grammatical 'present' stretches into the past and future (36:175) and both 'past' and 'future' are connected to the 'present'. What is more, 'past' may be directly linked to 'future' (cf. Future-in-the-Past).

Even if we can talk about a system of English tenses, their names may be misleading: for instance, Present Perfect Simple combines a past action with a present result, or when other languages can use future tense, English is restricted to a present tense (cf. sub-clauses). This leads to the recognition that each English tense should be checked individually, focusing on both its form and its usage, as well as compared to other tenses.

Thus we may see that the names of English tenses are not worth translating (although many grammar books by non-native speakers try it). Grammatically speaking, **simple** is not the antonym of **complicated**, and **continuous** or progressive is more than '**not stopped**' or '**finished'**.

Any English tense can be refined by comparing to at least two other tenses in order to establish its meaning-based importance in the system, and we have taken the liberty to number the tenses in order to try to offer – at least in our view – a more logical description and comparison. Yet, a warning must be mentioned:

> "Language does not mirror the universe, it conveys our interpretation of the universe, and it is therefore not possible to give rules about which tenses should be used on what occasions but only about which tense-unit to use if you choose to regard an event in a certain way. In other words, grammar can tell you what possibilities there are, but it cannot tell you how to say until you have made up your mind precisely what it is you want to say.", as the choice whether a given action is to be treated as an activity or as an act rests with the speaker or writer.[1] (3:54)

The quotation followed by the comment explains why the same event may be referred to with different tenses, as there are different interpretations. Present Perfect Simple is sometimes favoured over Present Perfect Continuous, or Passive Voice over Active Voice. Having this is mind, we present the English tenses by describing their form and usage, completed with typical time adverbials, illustrations, and comparison with other tenses supported by examples.

While in the previous paragraphs we listed problems and difficulties of English tense, let us finish the chapter with some encouraging facts:

- however difficult these tenses are, millions of non-native speakers have been able to master them (fact);
- English tenses form a system, centred around the aspect, so we can save a lot of time and energy if we conceive of tenses as four basic patterns, logically repeated twice more (what we learn about present tenses can be applied to past and future tenses – with certain additions and omissions);
- although the English tense system is made up of twelve tenses, completed with other constructions for expressing future, there are more frequent tenses, enabling us to select the order of studying them: Present Simple may be continued with Past Simple and Future Simple, or with Present Continuous, Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous. It is really important to discover our personal flavour in order to get acquainted with these tenses, hoping that the following prediction will remain but a sample:
  By the time you read this book you will have forgotten who you are.

In the following we will see that rendering past, present and future **time** cannot be considered separately from **aspect**, and to a great extent the expression of the **future** is closely connected with **mood**. But this leads to the discussion of tenses one by one.

[1] Although the quote is attributed to H. J. Uldall (*Notes on the English Tenses*. ELT, 1948/7), we could not find this bibliographic reference, even if Uldall published an article in the ELT Journal in 1948/6, 147–153.

2.1. Present Simple

Although various grammar books may start with the presentation of any of the present or past tenses, we think that the most logical approach is to start with Present Simple, abbreviated with ① throughout this book. Our reason is simple: it is usually easier to talk about present than past tenses, and due to the extensive use of Present Simple among non-native speakers.

Having in mind other possible grammatical categories connected to tenses, we have to mention that the majority of examples in this chapter are understood as in indicative mood (compared to conditional sentences in Chapter 5), active voice (compared to passive voice in chapter 3), not particularly associated with modal verbs (compared to chapter 7), and direct speech (instantaneous reported speech, and without emphasised constructions resulting in inversion.

However, when other cases are needed, they are explicitly mentioned (such as passive constructions, imperative mood, etc.). Spelling issues (e.g. *lie – lying, dig – digging*, etc.) are not particularly mentioned, having in mind that exceptions are less relevant. While consciously trying to avoid rules containing *sometimes*,[2] it may happen that we still need this type for formulation. Should the reader meet this type of rule, further inquiry is necessary from other sources.

The section title contains the most widely used tense name, followed by its form in square brackets, even if the I. verb is not 'the' Present Simple, testified by the third person singular form, as well as by the fact that the **imperative mood** (cf. 4.1.) and **infinitive** forms also use this verb form.

2.1.1. Present Simple forms

Auxiliary and modal verbs (except for elliptical short answers to avoid repetition) never appear alone, thus they cannot form Present Simple by themselves, hence their separate conjugation is not possible and they have no independent meaning. Consequently, we only have to deal with strong and weak verbs in the affirmative of Present Simple or tense ①.

As *be* is a strong verb, it needs no auxiliary whatsoever in non-affirmative forms, while do or does is the auxiliary for weak verbs in non-affirmative forms of ①:

Affirmative	**Interrogative**	**Negative**	**Negative-Interrogative**
a. strong verb (*be*)			
I am	*Am I...?*	*I am not*	*Aren't I ...?*[3]
You are	*Are you...?*	*You are not*	*Aren't you...?*
He is	*Is he...?*	*He is not*	*Isn't he...?*
She is	*Is she?*	*She is not*	*Isn't she...?*
It is	*Is it...?*	*It is not*	*Isn't it...?*
We are	*Are we...?*	*We are not*	*Aren't we...?*
You are	*Are you...?*	*You are not*	*Aren't you...?*
They are	*Are they...?*	*They are not*	*Aren't they...?*
b. weak verb (*go*)			
I go	*Do I go...?*	*I do not go*	*Don't I go...?*
You go	*Do you go...?*	*You do not go*	*Don't you go...?*
He goes	*Does he go...?*	*He does not go*	*Doesn't he go...?*
She goes	*Does she go...?*	*She does not go*	*Doesn't she go...?*

[2] Cf. "sometimes rules are not rules" (75:22, 177).

[3] *Ain't I …?* (non-standard, mostly AE); ~~*Amn't I …?~~

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
It goes	*Does it go...?*	*It does not go*	*Doesn't it go...?*
We go	*Do we go...?*	*We do not go*	*Don't we go...?*
You go	*Do you go...?*	*You do not go*	*Don't you go...?*
They go	*Do they go...?*	*They do not go*	*Don't they go...?*

Table 28. Present Simple forms

The table shows that ① is not "identical with the basic form of the verb" due to the third person singular (75:62–63) of weak verbs, but we can also think of subjunctive mood (*It is imperative that Shrek **be** nice with Fiona)*. The table clearly displays the following rules:

- the strong verb needs no auxiliary in neither affirmative or non-affirmative forms;
- the interrogative form (unless headed by an interrogative pronoun: *who, what, when, why, where*) of a weak verb starts with either a strong or auxiliary verb, which precedes the noun / subject;
- the negative form contains **not**, which may be inserted after a strong or an auxiliary verb, followed by a weak verb;
- negative-interrogative forms combine the previous two rules;
- the third person singular verb (strong, weak or auxiliary) takes an 's' or '(e)s', a rule valid for all **Present** tenses. This is a 'rock solid' rule, unless a modal verb is involved, which dissolves this rule (cf. 1.5.3. and Chapter 7);
- although it is a remark connected to meaning, it is important to mention here that the translation of you may cause a lot of headache, especially into languages where formal addressing (the T–V distinction) is highly important (e.g. French, Romanian, Hungarian, etc.).; contrary to the popular belief of non-native speakers, English does use formal addressing, although not directly encoded in *you*, but combined with *Sir, Madam, Mr., Mrs.* or with the help of modal verbs (cf. Chapter 7).
- negative forms may be contracted (*isn't, aren't, don't, doesn't*), which used to be typical in less formal communication, but today it is usual in speech. However, there are two possible contractions:
- the first letter of the strong verb disappears, marked by an apostrophe (*He's not*);
- *not* may be contracted: 'n' is added to the preceding word, 'o' is replaced by an apostrophe, followed by 't' (*He isn't*); this type of contraction is more extensively used in question tags.
- certain *wh-* question words in subject position need no *do* to form the interrogative:
  Who knows the Doe family?
  Which one goes there?
  What happens if you press this button?

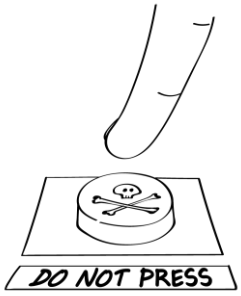

Illustration 11. Do not press

2.1.2. Uses of Present Simple

Present Simple is one of the basic tenses ("the tense of substitution par excellence" 16:308), being extensively used by all speakers, similarly to Past Simple. As for its usage, one might have the feeling that the more books we open, the more possible situations we can find for this tense. Worst of all, its time range is virtually unlimited (11:265), although it is "primarily used for situations that include the time of speaking or writing" (46:206), being able to encapsulate events in past, present and future.

This is why it is the "source of much confusion" as its essential characteristic is that "it expresses the speaker's view of the event as a **timeless fact**" (75:66). Present Simple is primarily used when the speaker "at the moment of speaking conceptualises the action described as total, complete", and the I. verb form refers to the following characteristics (75:66–67):

- the event is seen as a single, total, undivided entity; temporal references are irrelevant;
- the event is conceptualized as a matter of fact;
- the event is considered as immediate, rather than remote (in which case Past Simple is used). Convincing examples are:
  Now I understand the whole story.
  I have two brothers.
  Jane never meets the colonel at home.
  Media is unreliable.

The sentences clearly show that "any attempt to draw it 'in time' will be a misrepresentation" (75:170), and whenever an illustration tries to represent this tense has nothing to do with the central use (undivided view of the event).

The most typical uses of Present Simple are presented below, although we do not claim that all possible instances are mentioned:

1. ① is used for **general statements** (covering 'all' time or 'timeless' events, cf. 75:64) without reference to a specific time; thus we can talk about "generic" present (14:10), 'universal' time, "timeless present" (36:179), "timelessness" (46:255) or 'permanent' statements or situations, 'always true' observations), taking various forms:

- (undeniable) natural, physical, biological, scientifically proven **facts**:
  One and two make three.
- state of facts, eternal truths, proverbs:
  All is well that ends well.
  Don't judge a book by its cover.
  Extremes meet.
  I love you and it scares the hell out of me. (in a movie)
  Laughter is the best medicine.
  Silence gives consent.
  The exception proves the rule.
  Time flies.
  Today is January 13th.
- these may turn emphatic with the help of *do*:
  *I **do** love you.*
  *Practice **does** make perfect, indeed. Look at you!*

- general **characteristics** or permanent situations characteristic of the subject ("unrestrictive statements" 16:310) or facts that are "true for a long time" (69:143):
  Flight attendants travel a lot.
  Indifference kills.
  Practice makes perfect.
- this case comes close to **instantaneous present**, as sometimes the vision of these actions triggers the sentence:
  Flight attendants travel a lot. Look at them, how tired they are!
  Now[4] *you can see that the Danube flows into the Black Sea.*

2. describing habits, routines, which is a sub-type of (regularly) **repeated** actions, characteristic to subjects; this action happened many times, and probably it will be repeated in the future, thus frequency, repetition is important:
   It hardly ever snows in summer.
   Jane likes coffee in the morning.
   Pigs oink.
   Whenever she cries I give her a pack of tissues.
- time indicators may strengthen the idea of repetitiveness (*always, every day, frequently, never, occasionally, often, rarely, seldom, sometimes, usually*), although they are not exclusively 'designed' for this tense (cf. 2.1.3.) and they may be only implied;
- it is also worth mentioning that Present Simple refers to both repeated actions or habits associated with neutral feelings:
  John Doe always watches his back.
  (This is his habit, and I know it, but I am not angry with him because of this.)
- it may happen that a repeated action turns to habit, expressed by *am / are / is used to* + I.-*ing*:
  The Does are used to getting up early.
  (they did it so many times that it turned into a habit)
- whenever Present Simple is illustrated with the help of a drawing, this use is highlighted: repeated marks on a timeline, although we agree with Lewis that this is not a 'real' timeline, but rather a 'psychological' time (75:171), subjectively envisaged by the speaker.

3. the '**instantaneous'** present (cf. 36:180, 14:10) covers a wide range of possibilities, usually referring to a single event. In these cases, it takes over the central function of Present Continuous:
- 'on the spot' commentaries, such as sports events, public functions, announcements:
  Messi takes the ball from Ronaldo and scores for the second time.
- giving and offering information, sometimes in the form of demonstrations, describing methods, recipes, instructions or giving directions (words accompanied by actions):
  Don't try this at home. I take a basket of eggs then I drop it to see…
  Now I add some salt to the mixture.
  What do we do now? Stay or leave?

[4] *Now* is not only 'now', as it may include more or less regularly **repeated** actions ("iterative present" 48:138), typical programs.

Go down the street then turn left.
This use is actually "an alternative to the imperative" (40:166, see 4.1.).

- describing works of art or objects, trailers, academic works, reporting findings or people's work or synopses of works, plot summaries, book blurbs, reviews:[5]
  The biographic novel demonstrates the author's harsh life.
  The results show that further investigation is necessary.
  Shakespeare presents various interesting issues in his plays.
  Coelho's The Alchemist *describes Santiago's journey.*
- stage directions (cf. 'dramatic narrative'), remarks in the script, suggestions:
  Chuck Norris takes his boots and moves to the left while watches his opponents.
  Why doesn't he shoot them all?
- exclamations (this is possible because the indicative mood and imperative mood overlap):
  Look! Watch out! Don't patronize me!
- with *here* and *there*:
  There goes my chance to pass the exam.
- performative declarations, asseverations (*accept, acknowledge, advise, agree, apologise, assume, declare, demand, deny, forbid, forgive, guarantee, hope, inform, insist, predict, presume, promise, pronounce, recommend, refuse, state, suggest, suppose, swear, thank, threaten, warn*) etc., referring to 'now' (the moment of speaking), even if extended in time (cf. 75:63):
  I am sorry for being late.
  We accept your apologies.
  I resign because …
  You speak so fast.
  Don't do that! (Luke to Yoda on their first meeting)
- modal verbs combined with performatives are politer (35:2):
  I would recommend you to talk softly to her.
  I'm afraid you have to apologise for that.
- newspaper headlines, notices:
  Jane Doe strikes again.
  The notice says that …
- reporting things that all still valid in present:
  John predicts that the enemy is still in the village.
- 'short term' (effective immediately) indirect reporting, quoting or dialogues with proper introductory verbs:
  John says that he likes Jane. She says that she doesn't care.
  The Bible warns us not to commit adultery.
  I hear you leave us.
- with verbs not normally used in Present Continuous (cf. 2.2.3.), even if they refer to "immediate perceptions and feelings" (37:600):
  I know that you know that I know.
  I think I (can) trust you. I believe you are right.
  I remember you now.
  I feel cold.

However, many of these verbs may be used in Continuous once the basic meaning changes:

- involuntary to voluntary action:

[5] 37:273–274, 37:599, 40:166.

I'm thinking about marrying you.

Illustration 12. I'm thinking about

- linguistic guerrilla marketing (advertisement strategy by getting the attention of the public):
  I'm lovin' it![6]

Illustration 13. Linguistic guerrilla marketing

The common element in all these cases is that "temporal reference is unnecessary" (75:64), while there are further cases using ①, when the temporal reference becomes highly important, detailed in further uses below.

4. ① may be easily used for 'official' **future plans**, fixed programs, schedules, timetables, calendars, itineraries, journeys, 'immutable' or 'unalterable' events (68:151), 'definite' future arrangements, near-future suggestions or 'fixtures'.
   We fly from Rio and change to a NY flight at 11. (Even if we don't like it.)
   The International Book Fair in Tg.-Mures starts in November. (It always does.)
   What time is the football match? (I cannot call anyone to chance it.)
   Today is Monday, and tomorrow is Tuesday. (For quite a long time…)
   Our students have two compulsory English classes a week.
   So, we get married on August 21, and then we go on our honeymoon to Greece.
   I'll marry you when pigs fly.
   I go to sleep the minute I finish this sentence.
   Why don't you turn over a new leaf?
   - this use may also suggest that the speaker cannot (really) intervene to change the action, or they have no right to decide about it, so – with or without them – it will (inevitably) happen, as somebody else is the 'boss'; once the future event appears "quite independently" of the speaker's "understanding, perception, volition", so it is viewed as an "external force majeure", stemming from natural causes or a timetable (75:143);
   - thus it is considered "more impersonal or more formal than future plans expressed by Present Continuous" (33:180); in fact, there are views that this is the most certain 'future' tense (e.g. 7:122);

[6] Source of the illustration: https://freebiesupply.com/logos/mcdonalds-im-lovin-it-logo/, 01. 02. 2019.

- time adverbials may be included or implied, as the event may not be controlled by the speaker, even if this use is referred to as the 'present simple for future'; it is more important that the speaker views the event as a timeless fact or certainty (75:64–65).

5. ① may have future reference in sub-clauses as well: **conditional** and **temporal** clauses introduced by *after, as soon as, before, by the time, if, in case, provided, suppose, the minute, the moment, till, unless, until, when, while*:
   *Jane will marry John **unless** he **fails** to pop the question.*
   ***If** John **is** at home, he will shell peas.*
   *Help me **when** I **need** you.*
   ***Whenever** it **rains** I get edgy.*
   *The **sooner** you **read** this the sooner you finish the chapter.*

6. ① may also be used for story-telling (instead of Past Simple, which is considered to be the most typical for this function). Seemingly, Present Simple makes story-telling (or telling jokes, anecdotes) more vivid (especially headlines), referred to as "graphic present" (75:32):
   He was shy and then he marries the most beautiful girl in town.
   ('historic' present)
   Now, John wakes up and sees that Jane is nowhere. So he gets up and calls her.
   Meteorologist explains extreme cold.
- historic present is "characteristic of popular narrative style" and "it conveys something of a dramatic immediacy of an eye-witness account" (36:181). Furthermore, certain verbs of communication are also associated with ①: *hear, learn, say, tell, understand*, leading us to the next use.

7. certain verbs used in ① (*forget, hear, learn, tell, understand*) stand for Present Perfect (8:132, 23:450, see 2.3.):
   I hear you have a new boyfriend.
   I understand Jane's not available at the moment.

Other structures may use Present Simple in its I. verb form, such as the imperative mood or Passive Voice.

2.1.3. Time indicators for tenses

Time indicators (time or tense adverbials) are typically associated with tenses, as grammars highlight their importance in identifying or correctly using a tense. However, there is a major problem with them, before we specify time adverbials for ①, namely that they overlap, and the same adverbial of time may be used in various tenses:

*Jane **never** refuses John.* (Present Simple, habit)
*John is **never** listening to me.* (Present Continuous, annoyance)
*I know that John has **never** cheated on Jane.* (Present Perfect Simple, result)
*When John was a kid he **never** picked a fight with anyone.* (past habit)
*John had **never** seen such a beautiful girl before.* (Past Perfect Simple, past result)
*Jane will **never** marry anyone else but John.* (promise, expectation, fact)

The conclusion is simple: if a time indicator may be used in different tenses then its help to properly identify the particular tense is limited. In our example never is equally valid in

half of all tenses, warning us that it **may** only help interpret a particular situation. In this light we would like to list the following time adverbials for ①:

Main clause		Temporal clause	Conditional clause
again	*normally*	*after*	*if*
always	*now and then*	*as*	*in case*
as a rule	*occasionally*	*as long as*	*on condition (that)*
at night(s)	*often*	*as soon as*	*provided (that)*
ever	*on Sundays*	*before*	*suppose*
every (other) day	*once (in a while)*	*till*	*supposing*
frequently	*ordinarily*	*until*	*unless*
from time to time	*rarely*	*when*	
generally	*regularly*	*while*	
hardly ever	*seldom*		
in spring	*sometimes*		
in the morning	*twice (a week)*		
never	*usually*		

Table 29. Time adverbials for Present Simple

The place of time adverbials is important in sentences. Some of these frequency adverbials (single word ones: *usually*, *sometimes*, *often*) are positioned after a strong or auxiliary verb and before a weak verb. Multi-word time adverbials tend to appear after the verb phrase and multi-word frequency adverbials are end-positioned:

Jane sometimes starts shooting at night.
You are always on my mind. (Elvis Presley)
John starts shooting in the morning **(time)** *twice a week.* **(frequency)**

If emphasised, time adverbials may start the sentences:

***Sometimes** I think we should help her.*
***Never** do I trust him.*

Present Simple is further discussed in the following chapters:

1. other tenses (e.g. Present Continuous, Past Simple, Future Simple);
2. Passive Voice (Chapter 3);
3. conditional sentences (Chapter 5);
4. modal verbs (Chapter 7);

2.2. Present Continuous

Present Continuous (or Present Progressive) is typically associated with actions around 'now', although it is a more complex tense

Its form contains *am, are* or *is* (depending on the person), hence its conjugation is 'simpler' compared to Present Simple, as all forms use one of the above mentioned auxiliary verbs, followed by I.-*ing*. We refer to it as tense ② throughout the book.

2.2.1. Present Continuous forms

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
I am eating	*Am I eating?*	*I am not eating*	*Aren't I eating?*
You are eating	*Are you eating?*	*You are not eating*	*Aren't you eating?*
He is eating	*Is he eating?*	*He is not eating*	*Isn't he eating?*
She is eating	*Is she eating?*	*She is not eating*	*Isn't she eating?*
It is eating	*Is it eating?*	*It is not eating*	*Isn't it eating?*
We are eating	*Are we eating?*	*We are not eating*	*Aren't we eating?*
You are eating	*Are you eating?*	*You are not eating*	*Aren't you eating?*
They are eating	*Are they eating?*	*They are not eating*	*Aren't they eating?*

Table 30. Present Continuous forms

Similarly to ①, abbreviated forms are possible (*He's eating, He's not eating, He isn't eating*), and we can see that the auxiliaries help formulate interrogative and negative forms.

2.2.2. Uses of Present Continuous

All **continuous** (or progressive) tenses refer to a limited period that is **bi-punctual** (75:172), taking up **space in time** (75:91). Continuous tenses are **incomplete** (75:97), taking longer than a moment (75:86); **interrupted** events also belong to continuous ones due to the fact that they extend in time (75:91), thus **duration** for a limited period is the central concept for all continuous tenses, offering the speaker's **temporal interpretation** (75:85), **subjective** perception or **background information** (75:96) about events.

Present Continuous 'surrounds' *now* on either side, so it extends into the future time (75:86), although its duration is limited or temporary. Actions in Present Continuous express the speaker's psychological time, who thinks of them as referring to (75:87):

- a **limited** period;
- **incomplete** at the moment of speaking ('now');
- in the **process** of being completed.

The central usage of ② is connected to actions happening *now* (at the moment of speech), which is a rather subjective logical concept and can refer to either the split second or even long years viewed as 'temporary' but durative actions or states. Exemplified uses are presented below:

1. the action is going on at the moment of speech (most typically 'now', often referred to as **progressive** aspect). In this case we are not interested in when the action started or when it ends:
   What are you doing? I'm trying to finish your drink.

Illustration 14. What are you doing?

- although not exclusively, certain time adverbials may be associated with this tense: *at present, at the moment, at this very moment, currently, just, now, right now, still*. Due to logical reasons, the time adverbial is not compulsory. An excellent explanation is that "No reference is made to the span of time covered by the action, although the progressive form infers that the action is limited." (16:314).
- a specific sub-type is when we seize an action in development or change (cf. **incomplete**):
  The Does are growing older and older.
  Slowly but surely it is getting cold.
  Worries about climate changes are increasing.
- although story-telling is typically associated with past tenses, ② may be used as well for 'background' actions (dramatic narrative); it indicates that continuous (progressive) tenses are often used to express events "in progress when another event occurred" (46:276); this may also take the form of offering information, advice, promise, warning, advertisement, etc.:
  I'm just waiting for the show when the bomb squad suddenly appears.
  People are waiting for the President to appear.
  Police are struggling to protect the safe zone.
  If you are driving faster no-one knows what's going to happen.

2. being a Continuous tense, it may be **descriptive**; hence there are a lot of **picture-like** sentences in ② (sometimes in the form of 'background descriptions') or actual picture descriptions ('caught in the act of doing something'):
   Look! It's snowing!
   Jane is wearing a blue blouse (in this picture).
   - in case of verbs not normally used in continuous, we 'witness' a series of repetitive actions:
     The thugs are smashing all the plates and glass in the cupboard.
     John is taking the enemies down one by one.

3. a possible corollary to the first case is that ② is also valid for not finished, incomplete actions, even if they are not happening right now ('around now'); the

action is not over, and it is not specified the beginning and / or end of the action ("generally in progress", 32:1):
We haven't met for long as I'm redecorating the house. (and it's not over yet)
Jane's still reading War and Peace.

- although the context usually indicates the idea of 'now' for ②, certain time indicators may highlight it: *at the moment, (right) now, still, these days*.

4. ② may also highlight a **temporary** situation with limited duration or (not necessarily) premeditated repetitive actions:
***Nowadays** John's seeing a lot.*
***These days** nobody's working hard. It's August.*
- however, this temporary activity may extend over a longer period of time:
Jane is preparing for her next mission, that's why you cannot really see her.
The weapons are also missing from the gun case.

5. ② may be associated with actions that happen more often than expected (44:95) and "perhaps unexpectedly" (68:157), but without annoying the speaker:
I'm bumping into friends everywhere.
Jane is meeting high officials again.

6. tense ② may also refer to typical, repeated actions or habits, but – in contrast with ① – with an 'emotional colour', typically negative ones,[1] maybe because it happens too often; in fact, all continuous tenses can be used to express emphasised (mostly undesired, negative) feelings. Due to these emotional overtones, ② is more expressive:
*I know that the Does are **always** listening to heavy metal.*
*John is **never** listening to my advice. (I so much hate him for that!)*
*Yes, and Jane is **forever** interrupting me.*
- typical time adverbials are: *all (~ day long, ~ the time), always, continually, forever, never*; yet, the combination of frequency adverbials (*always, never*) with ② is not an automatic indicator of negative feelings, as the "unexpectedly high frequency" (75:97) may be positive as well (see previous use):
*She is **always** paying attention. (emphasised frequency, satisfaction)*

7. it may happen that we would only like to avoid possible future nuisance; in this case ② is rather distant from 'now', describing a general situation:
*Don't ask Jane anything **when / while** she is polishing her rifle.*

8. in a similar vein, ② may express certain reticence or refusal (present or future reference combined with strong feelings), accompanied by specific time indicators (*always, continually, constantly, forever, perpetually*):
I'm not doing it again.
John's not paying in advance.

9. while ① refers to habits or repeated actions (happening 'a thousand times'), ② is typical for a single event, which is a special, particular, exceptional or 'irregular' (happening 'once only'), connected to the concept of **limited duration** (*today, this week*):

[1] Ranging from mild surprise to irritation, exaggeration, anger, impatience, complaint, disapproval, annoyance.

*We usually have lunch at home, but **today** we are going to a restaurant.*
*Although G8151 has 4 morphology classes a week, **this week** they are having 6.*

- the contrasted activities reflect the difference, but the word order of ② makes it possible not to mention the typical activity (which is nevertheless implied):
  ***This week** we are visiting 6 wine cellars (but we are on holiday).*
  Today John is cooking. (Beware!)

Illustration 15. Today John is cooking

10. in extreme cases the time adverbial may be absent (although implied) from the sentence:
    Jane is being silly. She can't think it seriously.
    (She acts in a silly way in this particular case.)

11. Present Continuous (cf. in development, extending between two points) is also associated with the **future** time, usually referring to (near) future plans, fixed (personal) arrangements or programmes. The planned future action is considered certain or natural to happen, similarly to ①. Yet, in contrast with ①, this tense is used when:

- the speaker participates or may influence the decision making process;
- it may be (the result of) a personal plan, or
- the speaker's participation is relevant, as it may be the speaker who has taken the decision or acts like a 'boss':
  I'm meeting the Does tomorrow, so we are leaving at 9 a.m. (Because I say so.)
  When are you seeing to her? I'm meeting the President tomorrow.
  (The emphasis is on the arrangement.)
- the arrangement is before 'now', while the action proper is after 'now', so Present Continuous is perfectly suitable to express these cases (75:141).
- a special construction is typically used with this meaning:
  *I'm looking forward to meeting you **next weekend**.*

12. a distinctive sub-type is when ② refers to **polite wishes** (invitations), often combined with verbs of thinking (*hope, think, wonder*, etc.):
    What are you doing next weekend?
    Are you doing anything (special) tonight?
    We're hoping that you will help us.
    I'm wondering how many uses this tense may still have.
- these questions imply that the person formulating the question already has a plan (cf. arrangements) which involves the addressee as well; a negative answer usually means acceptance to the invitation:
  I'm not planning anything special…
  There are politer possibilities with present reference (cf. 2.5.2, 2.6.2.)

13. ② may be associated with while, referring to two **parallel** actions with future meaning:
    ***While** I'm doing the dishes, you are beating the carpets.*
    *I'll check my e-mails **while** you are watching the news.*
- however, a politer version is possible:
  ***While** I'm doing the dishes, you **can** beat the carpets.*

2.2.3. Verbs 'not normally used' in Continuous

Although we do not agree with the section title, most books refer to a specific set of verbs this way.

Yet, it is not accurate to refer to some verbs as "not used in continuous" (cf. 75:93), because basic verb meaning may change, making it possible to think about the same event as a complete whole, without taking up space in time (*I love it.*) or being in progress (*I'm lovin' it!*).

Certain verbs – due to their meaning – cannot have continuous aspect in their basic sense (static, stative, non-progressive verbs). These are not viewed as extending over a period of time or they are not intentional. In the majority of cases, the meaning of these verbs cannot be interpreted as 'right now' (asking for ②), as they refer to permanent situations. Thus they are typically used in ①, as they are contradictory to the concept of continuous / progressive use.

While non-static verbs may be viewed as 'action' verbs, based on the length or nature of the activity, we can identify certain static or similar to static verb types which are "not under strict human control".[2] These verbs may be grouped as follows:

1. **sense** verbs (cf. 70:6), expressing physical, mental perceptions or denoting involuntary, non-conscious activities: *appear, catch* (~ understand), *distinguish, feel, hear, look, notice, observe, perceive, recognise, resemble, see, seem, smell, sound* (~ seem), *taste, touch, watch*; when perception is implied, *see* and *hear* are used with *can* or *could*:
   *I **can hear** you but I **can't see** you.*
   *Jane **couldn't hear** a thing.*
- note that there is a considerable difference between using these verbs (cf. 70:21) followed by an object + infinitive (*see sy come*) or an object + I.-*ing* (*see sy coming*):
  *Jane saw the danger **coming**.* (a part of it, so doing some counteraction)
  *John saw Jane **come**.* (He watched the entire action, until Jane arrived.)

[2] Cf. 3:49–50, or 'lexical aspect' in 22:346–348.

- these verbs are typically intransitive, but they can turn durative (transitive), expressing a deliberate action, being used in continuous, exemplified at the end of this section.

2. verbs expressing (**inherent**) possession, state, existence or permanent qualities:
afford, appear (seem), be, belong to, care, come from (birthplace), comprise, concern, consist of, contain, cost, count, depend, differ from, exist, feel, fit, happen to, have (got), hold (contain), include, involve, know by, lack, look (appear), matter, mean, measure, owe, own, possess, prove, read, represent, resemble, seem, sound (seem), stand for, suit (be suitable), tend, weigh.

3. **non-conclusive** verbs denoting thought, will and emotions are also characterised by this behaviour:

- verbs of **cognition**, thinking, mental processes:
agree, assume, believe, can't tell, comprehend, consider (that), doubt, expect, feel (~ that, ~ sure, ~ certain), find, forget, gather (that), get it, guess, hear (be told), imagine, impress, intend, know, mean, presuppose, realise, recall, recognise, recollect, regard, remember, remind, see (understand), suppose, tend, think (believe), trust, understand, wonder;
- verbs of **feeling**, wants, preferences and opinion:
admire, adore, appreciate, attract, can't stand. care (~ for, ~ about), dare, desire, despise, detest, dislike, doubt, enjoy, envy, fancy, fear, forgive, hate, hope, intend, interest, like, love, mean, mind, need, pity, please, prefer, refuse, regret, require, respect, stand (bear), trust, want, wish;
- **performative** verbs (addressing the person directly):
accept, admit, agree, apologise, congratulate, declare, deny, disagree, forbid, forgive, guarantee, insist, invite, order, predict, promise, recommend, refuse, request, suggest, thank, warn;
- '**other'** verbs (describing experience, condition, etc.):
concern, depend on, deserve, fit, keep (continue), matter, need, promise, remain, resemble, signify, suffice, suggest;
- **time-point** verbs, **start** verbs, **end** verbs and **change of state** verbs, discussed in Chapter 1).

Although the categories above may seem to be set, changes in meaning may result from various reasons (e.g. technological advancements).

A good example is the case of *enter*, which used to be a typically **non-durative** verb until the invention of mobile phones; since then enter may be durative (thus operational in Continuous context):

*What are you doing? Actually, I**'m entering** the building right now.*
(talking on the phone).

Further cases of non-durative verb meaning changes resulting in continuous use are detailed below:

1. **change** from involuntary to voluntary activities ("conscious use of the senses", cf. 14:29):
The doctor is feeling John's pulse.
Jane's feeling the material: is it jeans or denim?
Jane is seeing the general tomorrow.

John is seeing worse and worse in the darkness.
What are you doing? Nothing, I'm just seeing Jane off.
John's tasting the stew.
I'm tasting the hotchpotch to see how much you've spoilt it.
In this picture Jane's smelling a rose.
The cat's smelling fish as the bowl is empty.
The Does are having a party.
The Does are having their schedule reorganized.
What are you thinking about?
Jane's expecting a baby.
Judge Martin is hearing the case.
Who's minding the broth?

2. special emphasis to a **particular** event at the moment of speech (temporary cases):
   I am feeling much better now.
   How are you liking this now, huh?
   Jane is being very pushy today.

3. **emotional overtones** (positive or negative) added in a non-standard, particular situation:
   Now you are just being silly. (temporary behaviour, otherwise you are not silly)
   You are always seeing / imagining things!
   Are you forgetting your manners? (regarding a particular event or person)
   I'm lovin' it! (commercial)
   I'm still loving you. (Scorpions)
   I've been wanting to tell you this for ages. (in a TV series)

4. **non-durative** actions may be **repeated** regularly over a period of time:
   Look! Jane is jumping for joy!
   John's kicking the door as part of the training session.
   Gas is costing more and more.
   Jane is getting thinner day by day.
   John's resembling his father more and more.

5. verbs expressing "transitional events and act" (36:209) may form a special subset within this category, interpreted as **anticipatory**:
   The plane is taking off.
   John's stopping the SUV in front of the house.
   Ronaldo's scoring his fifth goal.

6. non-durative verbs may also express degrees of **progress**, in which case continuous form is used:
   We're (not) getting (any) closer to the end of this problem.
   Jane is resembling her sister more and more.

7. verbs referring to "states of **bodily sensation**" (36:203), such as *ache, feel cold, feel sick, hurt, itch, tickle* may be used for **temporary** states in both ① and ②:
   Jane's scar itches. – Jane's scar is itching.

A possible conclusion of this section is that almost any verb may go through a change of basic meaning, or speakers may interpret them metaphorically, humorously, ironically, etc. as durative ones, resulting in continuous forms:

Why do you look so worried? I am weighing the possibilities of learning this stuff.

2.2.4. Present Continuous and other tenses

2.2.4.1. Present Continuous and Present Simple

The two tenses are often compared, although an initial problem may stem from the fact that their primary semantic characteristics are not highlighted (cf. 75:66). For instance, it is true that Present Simple refers to repeated actions or habits, while Present Continuous refers to special ones, but improper examples may not clarify the difference (75:88):

Jane Doe usually teams up with John Doe, but this week she is forming a team with John Smith.

The example clearly shows that the event in the Present Continuous is also repeated, even if for a shorter period of time. A further source of confusion may be the result of expressions compatible with both tenses (cf. 41:585–586):

This is the last time (of many) when I help you.
This is the last time when (specifically) I am helping you.
This is the last time I'm going to help you. (decision on the spot, cf. 2.13.)

The following table will hopefully both summarise and compare ② and ① in order to dissolve a few mistakes in their use:

② **Present Continuous**	① **Present Simple**
temporary event: *Jane is sleeping on the floor.* (until a bed is purchased in the new home)	permanent event: *Jane sleeps on the floor.* (that's how she is accustomed to)
limited activity (75:88): *John is speaking Chinese.*	unlimited ability, extended event: *John speaks Chinese.*
specific event (now): *Jane is watching the news.* (interested in current events)	general event (habit): *Jane watches the news.* (whenever she has some time)
particular occasion ('once'): ***Today** I am cooking.* *She is being silly.*	repeated action, fact ('a thousand' times): *The sun rises in the east.* *Two and two make(s) four.*
incomplete, unfinished event: *We are working on a mysterious case*.	complete, indivisible event: *We work on a mysterious case.*
in progress, limited, divisible events: *I'm getting to know the Does better after each mission.*	complete, indivisible, unitary whole (in an abstract, non-temporal sense, cf. 75:95): *I know the Does.*
questions such as 'When?' 'On what occasion?' 'Under what restrictions?' are possible (75:65): *She is working for the Agency.*	questions 'Who?' and 'What?' are possible: *Jane works for the Agency.*
actions longer than a moment, interruption is possible during the period (75:86): *We are suggesting a new approach to tenses.*	psychologically non-durative actions, especially with performative verbs (cf. 1.3.) referring to now as a single point-in time:

② **Present Continuous**	① **Present Simple**
	I suggest a ceasefire.
more frequent than expected activities (accompanied by positive or negative emotional attitude, cf.75:97): *John is always carrying a knife.*	context-based habit, 'neutral' feeling: *John always carries a knife.*
arrangement (near-future, intention): *We are having a party on Sunday.* *The Does are leaving at 5 p.m.*	fixed programme, schedule: *We have two French classes a week.* *What time does the bus leave?*
habitual actions may be accompanied by durative actions: *I fall asleep if I'm watching political debates.* *Whenever Fiona is complaining, Shrek slams the door.*	

Table 31. Present Continuous and Present Simple

Further tenses worth comparing to ② are Future Continuous and Going to Future (see sections 2.10.3.2. and 2.13.3.2.)

2.3. Present Perfect Simple

According to many grammarians, this is the most difficult tense for non-native speakers. We have to imagine this tense as a combination of both past and present; but if we say that this is a past-and-present tense, it will not help us much.

The basic idea is that there are cases when the action or event happened in the past, but its effect is felt in the present ("past with current relevance", cf. 36:192). Consequently, its form is closer to present tenses, while its meaning is closer to past tenses. **Perfect** in tenses means that the action is **over** and it happened "within a period preceding another period or point of time" (46:206).

In our case, actions expressed by Present Perfect Simple extend from past to the present time, and we refer to this as tense ③ throughout this book.

2.3.1. Form of Present Perfect Simple

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
I have eaten	*Have I eaten...?*	*I have not eaten*	*Haven't I eaten?*
You have eaten	*Have you eaten...?*	*You have not eaten*	*Haven't you eaten?*
He has eaten	*Has he eaten...?*	*He has not eaten*	*Hasn't he eaten?*
She has eaten	*Has she eaten...?*	*She has not eaten*	*Hasn't she eaten?*
It has eaten	*Has it eaten...?*	*It has not eaten*	*Hasn't it eaten?*
We have eaten	*Have we eaten...?*	*We have not eaten*	*Haven't we eaten?*
You have eaten	*Have you eaten...?*	*You have not eaten*	*Haven't you eaten?*
They have eaten	*Have they eaten...?*	*They have not eaten*	*Haven't they eaten?*

Table 32. Present Perfect Simple forms

As the table shows, *have* (or *has* for the 3rd person singular) is the auxiliary verb for ③. In fact, present and past perfect tenses[1] use *have*, *has* or *had* auxiliary verb forms as the primary auxiliary verb to formulate the interrogative and negative structures.

The two future perfect tenses are slightly different, detailed in sections 2.11. and 2.12., due to the presence of the modal *will*. Abbreviated forms with *have* and *has* are also possible*: I've not been, I haven't been, she's not gone, she hasn't gone*.

2.3.2. Uses of Present Perfect Simple

The central usage of ③ is to refer to **past actions relevant in the present**, or how past actions affect the present. However, this may be expressed in different ways:

1. **result**, meaning that the action happened in the past, becoming important now; hence we focus on effects, circumstances or consequences:
   John has shot a wild boar. (Look at that huge animal! John is probably happy.)
   John has already told her about it.
   Has Jane seen it yet?

- it is important to notice the lack of time indicator, as the time of the action is irrelevant (indefinite, unspecified time), focusing on the result of the action; once we add the time of the action, ③ is usually changed to Past Simple (cf. section 2.5.);
- it is often used in news reporting (47:42):

[1] Cf. sections 2.4., 2.7., 2.8.

The general has given the order to withdraw from Neverland.

2. Present Perfect Simple may express **partial results** (actions carried out in an unfinished period of time), especially combined with time adverbials denoting a shorter period of time within a larger, incomplete time unit (today, this year / month / week / morning, lately, recently):
   *John has taken part in five combats **this month**.*
   (So far, but the month is not over yet.)
   *We haven't had coffee **this morning**.*
   (The morning is not over yet. See also 2.5.)

- partial results 'in life' are typically expressed by the superlatives and ordinal numbers (often followed by *ever*, 45:63, 47:42); they may be easily completed with *so far*, though it is felt redundant (hence ellipted):
  This is the best place I have ever seen (so far).
  ***This is the first time** I have been to Neverland.*
  ***It's not the first time** they have played that show.*
  ***That's the first time** Jane has thought about marriage.*

3. '**recently' finished** action, which stems from the previous case, being more specific that it is near-past, signalled by *just, recently, lately*:
   *Jane has **just** returned from her mission. (She's very tired.)*

- however, the 'recent' past may be misleading, as it may also refer to an 'unlimited' period of time in the past (cf. 75:77), leading to the next case:
  Have you ever met Jane?
  The climate has changed for the worst in the past few centuries.

4. a further case when ③ is used for incomplete, not finished actions is when we use typically long durative verbs (*be, live, smoke, wait, work*) connected to **life experience** (*so far, all …*):
   The Does have been in the army.
   They have always worked for the government.
   They have done this all their life.

5. **life experience** (before is connected to the first time):
   *John has **never** eaten hominy **before**.*
   Have you ever wondered about the future?
   *I have **already** seen* 13 Ghosts*, but I haven't ever seen a real ghost.*
   *I have wanted to meet the Does **all my life**.*

- in these cases, we have no particular event in mind;
- typical time indicators are:
  ever, never, just, already (finished earlier than expected)
  (not) yet (still incomplete action, although expected)
  always, all (since day long), until now, up to now, so far, still;
- on the other hand, life experience may be connected to particular events or things, using comparative or superlative constructions:
  This is the best wine the Does have ever drunk.
  It is only the third time John has been in Dracula's Castle.

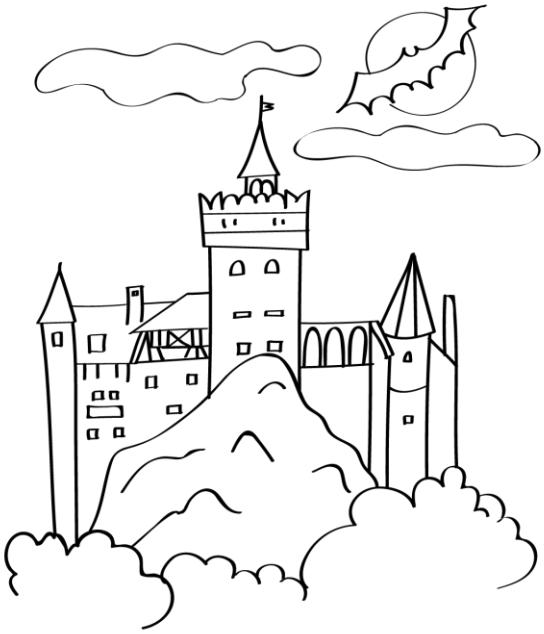

Illustration 16. It's only the third time

6. the common element in the above uses is that they refer to finished past actions up to the near past, so the action is finished in the present; however, there is a special case when actions expressed with ③ are not finished, so their meaning is **present**; virtually all non-durative verbs (not having progressive aspect) fit into this category (cf. section 2.2.3.), and ③ is used instead of Present Perfect Continuous (see section 2.4.2.):
   I have known the Does for two years.
   She has been ill since yesterday.
   - these actions started in the past and still going on in the present, extending in the future, so in fact they should be Present Perfect Continuous (see section 2.4.), which is only impossible due to verb meaning.

7. ③ may be used combined with Future Simple (2.9.3.2):
   We will stop after we have presented all the tenses.

Further remarks:

- the irregular *go* has two variants for the III. verb form (*go, went, gone / been*), signalling different meanings, illustrated with two sentences in ③:
  The Does have gone to Neverland. (That's why they are not here.)
  The Does have been to Neverland.
  (But they are back now, ready for the next mission.)
- in many of the above cases ③ is replaced by Past Simple in AE (cf. 2.5.);
- it is important to check the use of Present Perfect Simple in Passive Voice (Chapter 3), conditional sentences (Chapter 5) and connected to modal verbs (Chapter 7) as well.

2.3.3. Time indicators for Present Perfect Simple

We have seen that time indicators for ③ may be extremely varied, extending from nothing (to express results of past actions in the present) to specific ones for different usages:

- partial results:
  in the morning, lately, not yet, so far, this morning / week / month, today, up to now;
- recently finished actions:
  in the last few (~ seconds, ~ minutes, ~ hours, ~ days), just, lately, recently;
- life experience:
  all (since day long), already, always, as yet, before, during the last few days, ever (since before, since since), (not) long, never (before), now (finally), occasionally, often, only just, regularly, seldom, several times, so far, still (not), until now, up to now, (not) yet.
- a specific life experience is expressed by this is the first time, combined with ③ or Past Perfect Simple (41:585–586):
  This is the first time I have seen a whale.
- interrogative structures:
  How long has John left the premises?
  Since when have you been in financial trouble?
- *for* and *since* are complex enough to discuss them separately, as detailed in the following.

2.3.3.1. *For* used in Perfect tenses

There are two time indicators very specific for all perfect tenses: *for* and *since*. Their use is optional with ③, but we have to clearly differentiate them. Grammar books often contain exercises with *for* and *since*, as for non-native speakers these two time adverbials may cause trouble.

For refers to the whole period of time extending from the present up to the past period mentioned in the sentence. Thus it covers a period of time, the length of the entire activity, focusing on duration:

The Does haven't had a fight for three days.

If we wish to calculate when they had a fight, in the case of *for* we start from the present (*today*) and move **towards the past** (back to *three days* ago); if today is Friday, then counting back we reach Tuesday; further typical time adverbials are illustrated below:

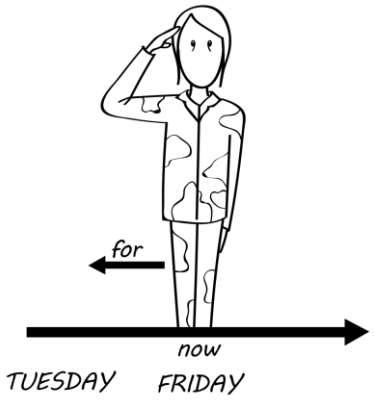

Illustration 17. *for*

Word cloud 5. *for*

However, *for* may be omitted after certain verbs (*live, stay, wait*):

Jane hasn't stayed (for) long.

Nevertheless, the complexity of *for* is signalled by the following sentences with different tenses:

The Does are in Neverland for a month.
The Does were in Neverland for a month.

As the first sentence is in Present Simple, it should not be compatible with *for* (which starts from present to past); yet, in this case it refers to the future (starting from now). The second sentence is in Past Simple (story-telling), so *for* starts somewhere in the past and it also ends in the past, without reaching the present.

These two sentences warn us again that **context** is more important than rigid rules, and in the majority of cases **interpretation** is vital. We started presenting *for* through the prism of Present Perfect Simple, but it is also worth comparing it with *since* (see the next section).

2.3.3.2. *Since* used in Perfect tenses

Since refers to the beginning of the action, so its starting point is in the past, reaching up to the present (time of speaking); due to its meaning, it can hardly be omitted from the sentence:

The Does haven't had a fight since 2018.

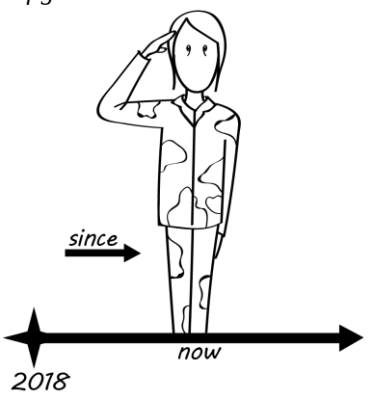

Illustration 18. *since*

The illustration marks the starting point (2018) with a star, from which the arrow starts up to the present. Because *since* may be an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction, there are cases when *since* is combined with sub-clauses:

- ③ ***since*** + a sub-clause (Past Simple):
  *Jane hasn't cried **since** she finished kindergarten.*
- ***It is***+ period of time + ***since*** + a sub-clause (usually Past Simple or ③):
  *It's five years **since** I (last) met Jane.*
  *It is two years **since** I haven't seen John.*
- ***It's been*** + period of time + ***since*** + a sub-clause (usually Past Simple):
  *It's been a month **since** John shot a wild boar.*
- emphasised temporal or conditional sub-clauses may also contain ③, when the order of events is highlighted:
  *After you **have eaten** your spinach, you can get some chocolate.*
  *If John **has reached** Neverland, he will call the general.*

Word cloud 6. *since*

2.3.4. Present Perfect Simple and other tenses

Present Perfect Simple may be compared to various tenses (Past Simple, Future Simple, etc.), but at this stage we only mention its connection with a previously discussed tense, namely Present Simple.

2.3.4.1. Present Perfect Simple and Present Simple

Although the two tenses seem distant, ③ may be also used in combination with ①, as the sentences below suggest:

John returns / can return home as soon as he's accomplished his mission.
Don't wait until Jane has eliminated all her enemies.

These sentences show that ③ may be used in temporal sub-clauses to highlight the sequence of actions: the condition for John to return home is to accomplish his mission, without which there is no way for him to return. Other time adverbials for sub-clauses are exemplified below:

When John has reached the extraction point he has a chance to survive.
The moment she has found out the truth, Jane can decide how to continue her life.
Let me know when the Does have returned home.
After Jane has polished her gun she takes up another job.

Illustration 19. After Jane has polished her gun

Present Perfect Simple may be replaced by Present Simple (but the meaning is preserved):

- in the case of certain verbs (*be told, forget, hear, learn*):
  ① *I am told that you quit your job.*
  ① *I forget her name.*
  ① *I hear that the Does left for Neverland.*
- both ① and ③ may be used for citing, although the latter "is especially used to emphasise current relevance or continuing debate" (37:274):
  The authors have highlighted the importance of further research in the field.
  The authors highlight the importance of the findings among teenagers.
- ③ may be easily turned to ① (see also Passive Voice, Chapter 3):
  Have you heard the news? → Do you know it?
  John has hurt Jane's feelings. → Jane's feelings are hurt.

- there are certain constructions where the auxiliary have may be replaced by *be* (11:288, 41:438):
  *Jane **has** come. – Jane **is** come.*
  ***Have** you finished? – **Are** you finished?*
  *I **have** done with you. – **I'm** done with you.*
  *Jane **has** had a baby. – Jane **has** a baby.*

2.4. Present Perfect Continuous

This tense is formed with the help of two auxiliaries: *have* or *has* (third person singular) helps in forming the perfect aspect, while *been* the continuous form, hence it is followed by the weak verb in *-ing* form. Whenever there is more than one auxiliary, the first one of them (cf. main auxiliary) helps in creating the non-affirmative forms.

2.4.1. Form of Present Perfect Continuous

Affirmative	Interrogative
I have been eating	*Have I been eating?*
You have been eating	*Have you been eating?*
He has been eating	*Has he been eating?*
She has been eating	*Has she been eating?*
It has been eating	*Has it been eating?*
We have been eating	*Have we been eating?*
You have been eating	*Have you been eating?*
They have been eating	*Have they been eating?*

Table 33. Present Perfect Continuous forms

Although the negative and interrogative forms are formed similarly (*I haven't been eating, Haven't I been eating?*), their use is rather limited.

2.4.2. Uses of Present Perfect Continuous

By and large, this tense may be the combination of two previously discussed tenses, namely Present Continuous (a temporally limited action is going on at the moment of speech), and Present Perfect Simple (partial result in present, as the action is not over yet), so we can summarise it with the following vexing formula, to the distress of mathematicians:

In the 'equation' above, ② stands for the Present Continuous, ③ for Present Perfect Simple, and ④ for Present Perfect Continuous (throughout this book):

② *John isn't drinking whiskey.* + ③ *John hasn't drunk whiskey for five years.*
④ *John hasn't been drinking whiskey for five years.*

However, we would like to define ④ with a little more academic verbosity:

1. ④ describes an action **started** in the past and **still going on**; as the action started in the past, this is typically expressed by *for* or *since*:
   The Does has been trying to defeat their enemies for two hours.
   How long have you been watching that TV series?
   Since when has Jane been working for the government?
- as these actions are not finished (and not interrupted), this main usage of ④ expresses a partial result, so it is considered a present tense in meaning, which usually extends into the future; sometimes the lack of time adverbials (*for* or *since*) signals the action is not over yet:
  I've been really trying to understand these tenses.

I hear John's been dating Jane.
You know, I've been thinking about your proposal.

2. it may express repeated activities (32:21), associated with the idea of temporariness (finished or not finished):
   *I've been listening to some jazz **this year**.*
   *I've been listening to some jazz **lately**.*

3. further use of ④ is intertwined with the major use of ③ (results in the present); it may also happen that instead of ④ we use ③, but we associate it with present meaning:
   Jane has been living together with John for twenty years.
   Jane has lived together with John for twenty years.

- a notable example is found in the film *Love Actually* (00:17'41''):
  H: Sarah, switch off your phone and tell me exactly how long it is that you've been working here.
  S: Two years, seven months, three days and, I suppose, what, two hours?
  H: And how long have you been in love with Karl, our enigmatic chief designer?
  S: Um… Two years, seven months, three days and, I suppose, an hour and 30 minutes.
- durative verbs may be used in both ④ and ③ with insignificant difference in meaning (*learn, lie, live, rest, sit, stand, stay, study, wait*); however, there are cases when ④ is more expressive, leading us to the next usage.

4. when there is a strong emotional colouring (usually negative feelings), ④ is more expressive; in fact, all continuous tenses may be suitable to express strong feelings (cf. ②):
   Who (the hell) has been messing with my wife?
   (I have just discovered it, and somebody is going to pay for this!)
   John, you've been stopping all the time. (… and I cannot take it anymore.)
   Come on, you've been writing that e-mail for an eternity.
   Have you been cheating on me?
   How long / often have I been trying to make you understand it!

5. Verbs not normally used in continuous (cf. section 2.2.3.) are typically used in ③ instead of ④:
   The Does have been married for twenty years. (And they are still together.)

- however, repeated actions may still be used in ④:
  Jane has been accepting missions all over the world since she turned 18.
- further uses make ④ synonymous with ③, and it is considered past tense in meaning.

6. ④ may refer to recently finished actions, whose result may be seen in the immediate environment ("the result of the activity is still apparent", 16:353; the state may last "up to the present moment" 32:21) or the looks and / or behaviour of the person involved:
   I've been waiting for this moment since I was born.
   *Why do you look so exhausted? **Because** I've been watching the foxhole all night.*
   Jane's hair is wet as she's been taking a shower.
   *I've struggling all my life to support you. **That's why** my hair (has) turned white.*

- tense ④ describes a present result (visible on the face of the addressee) of a past action.
- recently finished action may be emphasised with just:
  What are you doing there? We've just been sitting comfortably.
- typical time adverbials for ④ are: *all (night long), all my life, every day, for, for a long time, for eternity, non-stop, since, still, How long? Since when?*

2.4.3. Present Perfect Continuous and other tenses

2.4.3.1. Present Perfect Continuous and Present Perfect Simple

Based on the introductory definition, two obvious comparisons are given for ④: Present Perfect Simple (③) and Present Continuous (②). When compared to Present Perfect Simple, we should remember the following:

- both ④ and ③ may express actions started in the past continuing up to the present moment, referring to partial results, especially with specific verbs (*expect, hope, learn, lie, live, look, rain, sleep, sit, snow, stand, stay, study, teach, wait, want, work*); in these cases, ③ is less 'colourful' than ④:
  We have been waiting for the break for an eternity. (focus on action in progress)
  We have waited for the break for an eternity. (focus on result)
- ③ is favoured with "long lasting or permanent situations" or expressing the "whole period of time until the present" (35:16), while temporariness is emphasised with ④ (cf. 45:67):
  I have never liked that person.
  Jane is the most accomplished person I have ever met.
  Jane's been meeting high government officials recently.
- **finished** actions (especially combined with a specified number of times) are typically ③ (results), **not finished** actions are typically ④ (focusing on the activity, implying incompleteness):
  ***How many** times have you tried it? I have tried it six times. I give up.*
  ***How often** have you two met?*
  ***How long** have you been trying it? I've been trying it **for a while**, but without success for the time being; anyway, I don't give up.*
- although "there is not a great deal of difference" between them (15:78), ④ is associated with emphasised duration (sometimes turning impolite) and (temporary) present meaning, while ③ focuses on the result (sometimes it is politer, expressing a state) with past meaning (non-durative verbs: *break, decide, forget, have, notice, stop*) and repeated actions; the examples below illustrate that ④ is used for uninterrupted actions, while ③ is used if the action was interrupted during the specified period of time:
  I have been waiting for Jane for half an hour.
  (It's a bit long, I'm getting cold / nervous and she is still missing.)
  John, have you been waiting long? No, I have waited for only half an hour.
  John has waited for Jane too many times to count.
- ④ may be even combined with ③:
  *We **have been hoping** for a quick fight, but Shrek hasn't consumed his anger against the soldiers yet.*

2.4.3.2. Present Perfect Continuous and Present Continuous

Both tenses refer to actions happening at the moment of speech, but (contrary to other languages), there is a difference between the time adverbials associated with them:

She's quiet as she's watching Suits.
She's been watching Suits for seven hours, so her eyes are red.
John is sitting comfortably in his rocking chair.
How long is John sitting in his rocking chair? (from now on)
John has been sitting comfortably in his rocking chair ***for an hour****.*
How long has John been sitting in his rocking chair? (up to now)

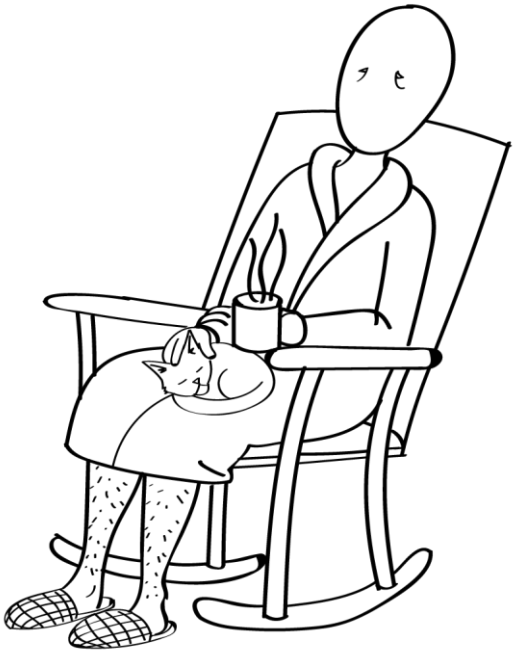

Illustration 20. John is his rocking chair

As the examples show, there is a clear distinction between ② and ④:

- ② focuses on actions happening at the very moment of speech (**now**, picture-like description);
- ④ typically expresses the starting point or the length of the activity **so far / up to now** (thus *for* or *since* is either compulsorily present or ellipted); whenever these two time adverbials are not mentioned in ④, it expresses (negative) emotional colour or the visible present result of a past action (similarly to ③).

Other cases involving ④ are discussed in sections 2.5. and 2.12.

2.5. Past Tense Simple

The II. verb form is first and foremost associated with **remoteness** (75:69–70). Grammatically speaking, the most frequent remoteness is **temporal**, so the II. verb form most typically will refer to past time, in our case Past (Tense) Simple. However, remoteness in relationship may also be expressed by the II. verb form (cf. politeness, conditional structures and modality, Chapter 5 and 7), as well as remote in possibility or factuality (cf. conditional structures, Chapter 5). Remoteness is also present connected to direct speech (called indirect or reported speech), expressing a certain distancing from the events (discussed in syntax).

However, it is important to clarify from the outset that remoteness does not only refer to past time, while Past Simple does not only refer to past events, which should be mentioned when Past Simple is first presented:

*I **knew** about the incident yesterday.* (**past** time)
*If I **knew** how to help you, I **would**.* (**present** / **future** time)

Grammar books almost exclusively mention that the II. verb form expresses 'past time', without realising that when discussing conditional structures, the same verb form will refer to remoteness in **possibility**. Although "the primary semantic characteristic" of Past Simple is remoteness in time (75:70), we cannot neglect the importance of the II. verb form in creating conditional and hypothetical constructions (Chapter 5 and 6).

Past Simple (or Preterite) or tense ⑤ is one of the most frequently used tenses, as all past tenses are connected to it. Taking into account that it is grammatically the 'simplest' construction of all past tenses, this is the starting point for describing past.

2.5.1. Past Simple forms

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
a. strong verb (*be*)			
I was	*Was I…?*	*I was not*	*Wasn't I...?*
You were	*Were you…?*	*You were not*	*Weren't you…?*
He was	*Was he…?*	*He was not*	*Wasn't he…?*
She was	*Was she?*	*She was not*	*Wasn't she…?*
It was	*Was it…?*	*It was not*	*Wasn't it…?*
We were	*Were we…?*	*We were not*	*Weren't we…?*
You were	*Were you…?*	*You were not*	*Weren't you…?*
They were	*Were they…?*	*They were not*	*Weren't they…?*
b. weak verb (*eat*)			
I ate	*Did I eat…?*	*I did not eat*	*Didn't I eat…?*
You ate	*Did you eat?*	*You did not eat*	*Didn't you eat…?*
He ate	*Did he eat?*	*He did not eat*	*Didn't he eat…?*
She ate	*Did she eat?*	*She did not eat*	*Didn't she eat…?*
It ate	*Did it eat?*	*It did not eat*	*Didn't it eat…?*
We ate	*Did we eat?*	*We did not eat*	*Didn't we eat…?*
You ate	*Did you eat?*	*You did not eat*	*Didn't you eat…?*
They ate	*Did they eat?*	*They did not eat*	*Didn't they eat…?*

Table 34. Past Simple forms

As the affirmative of this tense is formed by one verb, it is important to distinguish two cases, as in to Present Simple.

In case the verb is strong (the past forms of *be*: *was, were*), there is no need for auxiliary verbs to construct the interrogative and negative forms, as the strong verbs can 'handle' both of them:

- *was* or *were* precedes the subject to form the interrogative;
- *was* or *were* is followed by *not* to form the negative.

In cases where the verb is weak (II. form of irregular verbs, *-(e)d* ending for regular verbs), it can form the affirmative by itself, but *did* is needed as the 'dummy' auxiliary for ⑤ in interrogative and negative forms:

- to form the interrogative, the affirmative form is headed by *did* and the weak verb is 'converted back' to its basic (I.) form;
- to form the negative, *did* is inserted before the weak verb, followed by *not*, and the weak verb is 'converted back' to its basic (I.) form;
- contracted forms may be used for negative constructions: *wasn't, weren't, didn't*.
- certain *wh*-question words in the subject position need no *did* to form the interrogative:
  Who killed Bill?
  What went wrong during the mission?
  Which one said that?

Formation rules of ⑤ clearly show that one grammatical category is used only once within an English sentence (contrary to other grammars); this means that in standard English no double past forms are possible (**I didn't ate*.), or no double negative is acceptable (**I didn't do nothing*.), although in sub-standard language use they still appear.[1]

Another observation is that all conjugation forms are identical with weak verbs, as the third person singular *-s* ending applies only to present tenses.

2.5.2. Uses of Past Simple

As Past Simple is formally the simplest of all past tenses referring to a definite time, this is the universal "par excellence" (17:180) time for narration (about fully completed actions). Thus it is "primarily used when the situation was completed before the time of speaking or writing" (46:206), but there are a few cases to be mentioned:

1. ⑤ is used for story-telling ('narrative' or 'historic' past), referring to cases when the time of the action is implied, based on the fact that both the speaker and the interlocutor 'know' when the action happened:
   Shrek lived in the swamp far away from human beings. (Once upon a time…)
   When Jane arrived home she saw that John wasn't in the kitchen.

- these sentences demonstrate that there are two types of story-telling: one belonging to the world of (fairy) tales, in which case all actions happened *once upon a time*, which is considered grammatically as a 'universally known' time; the other case shows that we can narrate events connected to our life, in which case the listener or reader is **supposed** to know when the action happened, either mentioned in a previous sentence or 'since they last met'. Whatever the case, the time of the action is important (even if implied), otherwise this is not a 'legitimate' tense;
- story-telling may include a (longer) series of events, but in a strict chronological (and logical) order: ⑤ + ⑤ + ⑤ + ⑤ …, for instance police interrogations,

[1] Mostly in dialects and Hollywood productions.

confessions, telling jokes, etc.; if the logical (chronological) order is disturbed, other tenses (Past Perfect Simple, Past Continuous) are needed;

- procedures, experiments, studies may be described with ⑤ (37:274):
  The study took five years to finish.

2. there are (single or repeated) events or actions which we know to have happened in the past based on our cultural knowledge (history), in which case ⑤ is used (we all heard of World War II, Shakespeare, etc.). This case may be considered a sub-type of the previous one:
   Many people died in wars. (throughout the history of mankind)
   Oscar Wilde was one of the most interesting figures in literature.
   *He **often** had a witty remark.*
   (We know he passed away, even if we do not know when.)
   - the second sentence also signals an important observation: ⑤ is used to refer to the dead, even if the meaning of the sentence expresses results; grammatically speaking, it seems to be more important that Oscar Wilde died than his achievements, hence the Past Simple (cf. section 2.5.4. for other cases);
   - as such, this tense is suitable to render biographical notes (13:89).

3. naturally, the easiest case to securely use this tense is when the time of action is given; the examples below are the most typical, highlighting the importance of the time of action over other circumstances:
   *The Does landed in Neverland two days **ago**.*
   *John disappeared in the jungle **yesterday**.*
   *The area was sealed **on** Monday.*
   *The Does renewed their life insurance **last** week.*
   *The last time I met them personally was **in** June.*
   *They first met **in** 1997.*
   *Jane disguised herself as a nurse **from** January **to** June.*
   *Jane woke up **when** John came home.*
   (two consecutive past actions, story-telling)
   *John dropped the mug **when** he saw a mouse in the corner.*
   (two simultaneous past actions, story-telling)
   *I lived abroad **for** three years.* (but not any more)

4. if we approach Past Simple as the ‘counterpart’ of Present Simple, then it seems logical to have past habits or repeated (characteristic) actions in the past:
   *He **always** carried a gun. (But now he’s dead, in jail or changed radically.)*
   ***Now and again** I heard rumours about your affair.*
   (meeting someone after a considerable time)
   ***Every so often** students revised the list of irregular verbs.*
   (in the meantime they finished their studies)
   *I killed time there **for** four years. (But I’m back.)*

5. Past Simple is used instead of Past Continuous in cases where the verb is not normally used in continuous:
   *She **was sitting** there from 5 to 6 yesterday.*
   *She **was** there from 5 to 6 yesterday.*
   *I **lost** my ID card somewhere between midnight and morning…*

All these cases make use of a 'past' verb form, that is the II. form or *-(e)d* ending in the affirmative. However, past meaning may be expressed with the help of modal verbs too, in which case the modal verb takes over the past form, followed by the weak verb in its I. form:

6. although *used to* is a marginal modal verb (see section 1.5.3.1.), it may be used as a weak verb (see section 1.5.4.5.), which perfectly fits here, as it expresses frequent past (discontinued, 33:151) habits, states or repeated actions, habits, routines in the past, which can **'never'** happen **again** (or are not valid any more):
   *The President **used to** sit on that bench.*
   ***Did** the President **use to** sit on that bench?*
   *The President **didn't use to** sit on that bench.*

- possible interpretations of this sentence are:
  a) the President is already dead;
  b) the President moved from the neighbourhood;
  c) there is no bench anymore;
  d) the bench now belongs to a restricted area;
  e) the bench is part of a museum collection.

All these interpretations lead to the conclusion that this will never happen again, although it may happen that the President – when retired – returns to the same bench. Thus *used to* is for once true situations, which turn false later (cf. 75:73).

A completely different use is detected in the lexical item *get used to* + I.-*ing*, expressing an action or change of state "that was difficult, strange, or unusual before, but is no longer so" (68:158); a similar use is reflected by the *am / are / is / was / were / become used to* + I.-*ing* constructions:

I am used to meeting foreigners. (~ accustomed, cf. 33:152).

7. a similar meaning to *used to* may be expressed with the help *would*, describing frequent past habits or repeated actions (but not states, as it is only 'frequentative' would), which can still happen in the present, although **less often**; another possibility is to refer to "past states that have changed' 35:38):
   *In his early career John **would** often **listen** to his mates.*
   (now only from time to time)

- *would* may be regarded as a modal verb with special functions, among which auxiliary for Future-in-the-Past should be mentioned (connected to reported speech as well):
  *Jane knew that it **would** not be easy to survive Neverland.*
  For practical reasons, we consider *would* a modal-auxiliary in the example above.
- when the subordinate clause starts with *whenever, every time, would* is favoured over *used to*:
  ***Whenever** Jane asked anything from John, he **would** gladly agree.*
- however, neither *used to* nor *would* is used to refer to one particular event (35:38):
  *She **was** happy when she discovered the truth.*
- it is important to mention that the choice of II. verb form versus a *used to* or *would* constructions reflects "the speaker's perception of, or attitude towards, the event" (75:72):
  I smoked in the army. (possible story-telling, reflecting on past habit)
  I used to smoke in the army. (I'm an old man now, 'never again'*)*
  I would smoke a lot in the army. (Now I smoke much less and feel nostalgic about.)

8. sometimes story-telling may involve past reflections about the future that remained intentions only; these 'past aspirations' are typically expressed with the past form of certain expressions with *be*:

- ***was / were going to***+ I. verb form (see 2.13.):
  Jane was going to kill a thug, but she changed her mind.
- **past intentions** may have been fulfilled or not (9:110):
  Jane had to load the gun quickly because the thugs were going to kill her.
  ('near future in the past' 23:466)
- **future predictions** may stem from logical deductions in the past as well:
  Jane was heavily outgunned. She was going to lose the fight.
- **[aiw]** ***to*** (see 2.14.1.):
  The plane was to land at 9 p.m. (but it was delayed)
- **[aiw]** ***about to*** (see 2.14.2.):
  The bomb was about to explode when Chuck Norris cut all the wires.

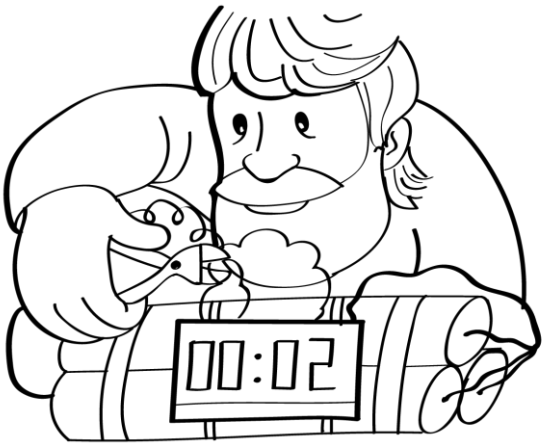

Illustration 21. Chuck Norris

- **[aiw]** ***bound to*** (see 2.14.3.):
  John was bound to make a mistake as he was under great stress. ('predestination')
- **[aiw]** ***due to*** (see 2.14.4):
  The plane was due to land three minutes ago.
- **[aiw]** ***on the point of, on the verge of*** (see 2.14.5.):
  I was on the point of finishing this part but then I remembered further issues.
- these cases lead us to reported speech, when the II. verb form does not automatically mean that the situation is past; although the tense in the main clause is past, the meaning of the past tense in the sub-clause is 'present time at the moment of speech':
  She confessed she ***loved*** *him.*
  John realised he ***liked*** *staying in Neverland.*

9. ⑤ may replace Present Perfect Simple, especially in AE:[2]
   Jane didn't meet John ***yet.***

[2] Cf. 36:194, 73:216.

*Did the Does leave for Neverland **already**?*
*They **just** left for Neverland.*

10. statements in Past Simple may become more emphatic with the help of *did*:
*I **did** enjoy the film last night.*
*We **did** hope to catch the ceremony.*

11. a so-called 'indefinite past' makes use of the II. verb form, exemplified by proverbs:[3]
A little bird told me.
Almost never killed a fly.
Curiosity killed the cat.
He who never climbed never fell.
It just came and went.
The golden age was never the present age.
The pot called the kettle black.

The examples above show that the use of ⑤ involves *when*, either implied (based on 'world knowledge') or explicitly stated; all actions happened at an identifiable past time or indefinitely 'a long time ago', which is definitely over.

As mentioned in the introduction, ⑤ may be used in certain constructions, when it does not express past time:

a) in reported speech, which is associated with backshift or sequence of tenses:
John knew that Jane was not at home.

b) in these cases the reporting verb triggers a certain past tense,[4] which is nevertheless optional:
*Did you know that Jane **is / was** here?*
*Jane told the colonel that John **has / had** enough backup.*

c) the so-called **attitudinal past** (46:257) may be politer or tentative than Present Simple in (indirect) requests or questions,[5] especially with the following verbs: *intend, like, want, wish, wonder* (14:17):
I wanted to ask you about the Does.
What did you say your name was?
I wondered if you were happy enough.
I hoped you would tell the truth.

Politeness stems from the indirectness of the request (16:323) or "as a metaphorical distancing in the relation of the speaker to the hearer" (46:257); we mentioned this possibility as remoteness in relationship when introducing Past Simple.

d) the so-called **hypothetical** past used in specific conditional sentences (Chapter 5) and hypothetical constructions of 'unreal' past (cf. Chapter 6 and Subjunctive Mood in 4.2.):
***If** we **went** to the show, we **would** see interesting things.*
*I **wish** I **understood** this English grammar.*
***It's time** we **stopped** with this section.*
*I **wish** I **could** stop now.*

[3] Source: http://buklib.net/books/30402/ 24. 01. 2017.
[4] 36:188, 46:256, 52:47
[5] 11:272, 36:188

e) the 'past subjunctive' *were* is used in formal contexts in place of hypothetical past *was* (46:257):
*I **wish** it **were** over now.*
f) ⑤ may refer to present time as well (75:69):
Sorry, what did you say?
What was it again, please.
Did you want to see me?

We believe there are many convincing examples that the II. verb form (or *-ed* ending) is not equivalent with Past Simple, and it is more accurate to think of II. verb form as expressing remoteness in time, relationship and possibility. Remote possibilities and relationships are further detailed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

2.5.3. Time adverbials for Past Simple

The main idea of Past Simple is to refer to actions that happened in the past combined with when. The following time adverbials are considered to be 'typical' of ⑤, although we will see that language is not as rigid:

SINGLE		REPETITIVE
a week ago	*just a moment ago*	*always*
after (hour, day, month, year)	*just now*	*during the year*
at that time	*last night*	*ever*
at the moment	*on July 6 / on Friday*	*every so often*
at the time	*once*	*never*
at the turn of the century	*once upon a time*	*now and again*
before (hour, day, month, year)	*recently*	*often*
earlier this week	*the other day*	*once in a while*
How long ago …?	*then*	*whenever*
in spring	*two days ago*	
in the morning	*when*	(series of events)
in 2015	*yesterday (evening)*	

Table 35. Past Simple adverbials, single and repetitive

Two consecutive past actions (⑤ + ⑤) may be combined with *as soon as*, used in story-telling (cf. 2.7.2., *hardly, scarcely, no sooner*):

***As soon as** John got the message, he went to save Jane.*

However, the majority of time indicators may be used with both ⑤ and ③, not to mention other tenses:

Word cloud 7. Past Simple & Perfect adverbials

The difference lies in their interpretation (11:281):

- time adverbials for Past Simple are understood as 'in the past';
- time adverbials for Present Perfect Simple are understood as 'up to the present':
  ⑤ *I **was** so happy **today**.* (at the end of the day)
  ③ *I haven't seen John today.* (so far, but the day is not over yet)
  ⑤ *John earned enough this month.* (drawing the line on the last day of the month)
  ③ *Jane **has been** to Mogadishu **this month**.* (the month is not over yet)
  ⑤ *John **visited** his parents **recently**.*
  (the past action is not connected to the present)
  ③ *Jane **has visited** some thugs recently.*
  (*So she may have some bruises, but they are all in hospital now*.)
  ⑤ *The Does stayed in Neverland **for a month**. (That was a long time ago.)*
  ③ *The Does have stayed here for a month.*
  (*Take a look: this is their room. They may still return.*)

A preliminary conclusion is that neither the I. nor the II. verb form express "fundamentally temporal concepts" (75:170); the events are facts, immediate (I.) or remote (II.) and restricting them to 'present' or 'past' time only is not a viable option in the long run.

2.5.4. Past Simple and other tenses

Comparing Past Simple to other tenses causes a serious headache for many and is the hobby-horse of English teachers, due to the fact that Past Simple may serve as the starting point for differentiating other present and past tenses.

2.5.4.1. Past Simple and Present Perfect Simple

Present Perfect Simple is – most typically – compared to Past Simple (cf. grammar books), including common time adverbials as well (e.g. *recently, lately, for a period of time*).

Present Perfect causes real trouble for non-native speakers:

1. due to its link with the present, it is 'essentially a present tense" (11:279) and it is "always essentially grounded at the point now, the moment of speaking" (75:76);
2. while the II. verb form refers to the 'past', *have / has* + III. verb form refers to a 'before now' event, hence retrospective (75:76);
3. another explanation is that ⑤ is used when "at the moment of speaking" the speaker "sees the event as remote" (75:13), while ③ is used when there is still prospect for the event.

The table below exemplifies similarities and differences between ⑤ and ③:

⑤ **Past Simple**	③ **Present Perfect Simple**
essentially factual, remote (in time), relating to a definite event or state in the past (75:77): *I was sick last week.*	essentially grounded in the moment of speaking, yet indefinite, providing the speaker's present view of the past (75:77): *I've been sick.*
WHEN (DID IT HAPPEN)? past action combined with past reference:[6] *I saw Jane three minutes **ago**.* past time adverbial may be implied:	WHAT (HAPPENED)? past action as a result (relevant 'now'): *I haven't seen Jane **for** three minutes.* present relevance is obvious:[7]

[6] Although all events remembered or mentioned from the past are 'relevant' for the speaker (cf. 75:78).
[7] Cf. the speaker is made to "look back on something which has already happened." (75:78).

⑤ **Past Simple**	③ **Present Perfect Simple**
Did you see Jane? *(when she was here; since we met)*	*Have you seen Jane?* *(already, yet, as I need her 'now')*
final result (deceased people): *Charles Dickens wrote many novels.*	partial result (people still alive): *Jane has written her autobiography.*
finished action + complete period: *I made a good deal this morning.* *The Does stayed in Neverland* ***for*** *two weeks.*	(un)finished action + incomplete period: *John hasn't seen Jane this morning.* *The Does have stayed in the hotel* ***for*** *two weeks.*
story-telling (implied 'when'): *She brought some bread.* *How long ago did she meet John?*	present relevance (implied 'before now'): *Have you brought any bread?* *For how long hasn't she lived with John?*
past based on knowledge: *Jack the Ripper killed many women.*	past action affecting the present: *John hasn't killed any women.*
once for a particular single occasion: *John met a fine woman once, and now she is his wife.*	once as life experience: *I have eaten shrimps once… (never again!)*
the narration may start with ③, but further details are formulated with ⑤ (especially news reports, cf. 35:8): *I have seen Titanic. However, I didn't want to go the film, but I met Sarah…*	
results may be expressed with ⑤ if *when* is 'implied':[8] *The Does wanted to get married so they cancelled their next mission.* *I didn't recognise her. (when I met her.)*	

Table 36. Past Simple and Present Perfect Simple

Although there are many differences between them, the two tenses may be combined into a single sentence:

- ③ SINCE ⑤
  Jane ***has liked*** *John* ***since*** *they first met at a briefing.*
  I ***haven't spoken*** *English* ***since*** *I* ***passed*** *my oral exam.*
- SINCE ⑤, ③
  Since *the Does* ***got married****, they* ***have lived*** *a happy life together.*
- the sub-clause introduced by *since* may be reduced:
  Since then, *many things have happened.*
- ③ is often replaced by ⑤ in AE:
  Did *you* ***meet*** *the Does* ***yet****? No, because I* ***lost*** *my glasses.*
- both tenses may be used with the following construction (the first option is more typical):
  It's a long time since I last saw John.
  It's a long time since I last have seen John.

2.5.4.2. Past Simple and Present Perfect Continuous

Similarly to the previous combination of tenses, we can identify the following ones:

- ④ SINCE ⑤
  The Does ***have been living*** *together* ***since*** *they* ***got married*** *in 1997.*
- SINCE ⑤, ④
  Since *they* ***arrived*** *home, the Does* ***have been trying*** *to forget the mission.*
- the sub-clause introduced by *since* may be reduced:

[8] Cf. "the hearer already knows when it happened or can understand this from the context" (35:6).

Since then, they have been seeing a therapist.

2.5.4.3. Past Simple and Present Simple

We have described Present Simple as partially connected to present time, and Past Simple as partially connected to past time. In both tenses the event is viewed as an undivided whole, while the difference is that the event may be "immediate" (I. verb form) and "remote" (II. verb form), but not exclusively.

If tense ⑤ may be viewed as the past variant of ①, at least in specific cases, we obtain the following:

1. narration, story-telling, telling jokes:
   So, he got up, went there and kissed the girl.
   So, he gets up, goes there and kisses the girl.
   (more vivid narrative present)

- this may be called the "graphic present" (75:32, 69), used for describing past events with the help of ①.

2. **attitudinal past**, which sounds politer than ①:
   Do you want to talk to me?
   Did you want to talk to me?

- in these cases, the tenses – once again – do not refer to standard present or past time.

3. habits (repeated actions) in the present and past:
   You know I never give up. ('no end sight')
   Jill never gave up a fight.
   (but now she doesn't fight any more, she has retired, or she died)
   When John's angry, he does a couple of hundreds of push-ups.
   When John was five, he played World of Tanks.

2.6. Past Tense Continuous

As all continuous (or progressive) tenses refer to a limited period that is "bi-punctual" (75:172), "taking up space in time" (75:91), this is also true for Past Continuous, which refers to incomplete events (75:97) in the past, taking longer than a moment (75:86) and it may be interrupted (75:91).

Past Continuous surrounds a well-defined then moment before now, with limited or temporary duration, expressing the speaker's psychological time (75:87); the speaker typically uses this tense to express exactly when the event happened, offering an extra shade in meaning compared to Past Simple, so it is worth explaining it as the combination of the remote and continuous form (75:138); we refer to it as Past Continuous or tense ⑥.

2.6.1. Past Continuous forms

Affirmative	**Interrogative**	**Negative**	**Negative-Interrogative**
I was eating	*Was I eating?*	*I was not eating*	*Wasn't I eating?*
You were eating	*Were you eating?*	*You were not eating*	*Weren't you eating?*
He was eating	*Was he eating?*	*He was not eating*	*Wasn't he eating?*
She was eating	*Was she eating?*	*She was not eating*	*Wasn't she eating?*
It was eating	*Was it eating?*	*It was not eating*	*Wasn't it eating?*
We were eating	*Were we eating?*	*We were not eating*	*Weren't we eating?*
You were eating	*Were you eating?*	*You were not eating*	*Weren't you eating?*
They were eating	*Were they eating?*	*They weren't eating*	*Weren't they eating?*

Table 37. Forms of Past Continuous

Similarly to Present Continuous, this tense uses *be* as the auxiliary verb in its corresponding past forms: *was* and *were* in affirmative, interrogative and negative.

2.6.2. Uses of Past Continuous

Compared to Past Simple, this tense is less vague in specifying the time of the past action (Continuous Preterite), thus ⑥ is used for temporary, limited (relatively longer) past actions when the speaker considers to know 'exactly' when the action was in progress (*then, before now*), similarly to tense ②, where we also know the 'exact' time of the action (*now*). In our view, exact time in the past can be expressed in at least four ways:

1. ⑥ was going on at a **definite moment** / point in the past, expressed by the exact time, which is a **point** within a bi-punctual period:
   *Jane was lying in the sun **at 5 p.m. yesterday**.*

2. ⑥ was going on at a **definite moment** in the past, expressed by an exact period of time, which constitutes the **two end-points** of the limited period:
   Jane was lying in the sun from 4 to 6 p.m. yesterday.
   Jane was lying in the sun between 4 and 6 p.m. yesterday.
   At this time yesterday Jane was lying in the sun.

3. a **longer** past action **disturbed by** a **shorter** one in the past (picture-like sentences or 'background' descriptions, cf. 2.2.2.):
   *Jane was lying in the sun **when** John showed up.*

- however, the shorter past action may end the longer one, in which case we talk about interrupted actions:

*Jane was lying in the sun **when** some thugs captured her.*

- as all continuous tenses refer to actions extended in time, other actions may happen during this period, hence they can provide a "background event" (75:96);
- both cases may be described as ⑥ + ⑤, and ⑤ + ⑥ is also possible:
  ***When** John **arrived** home, the burglars **were ransacking** the drawers.*

4. **two parallel actions** going on in the past; in this case while is the most typical time indicator:
   ⑥ + ⑥
   *Jane was lying in the sun **while** John was sharpening his knife next to her.*
   ***While** Jane was lying in the sun John was sharpening his knife next to her.*
1. similar time indicators: *when* (~ *while*), *as*; in most cases one of the tenses is usually shortened:
   ***While** sleeping, John was dreaming of his last action in Neverland.*
   ***While** in bed, Jane was hoping for the morning coffee.*

Further cases may also enrich the use of ⑥, although less frequent:

5. the length of the action tends to be **subjective**; thus any past action may be used in ⑥, if the speaker feels it is 'long enough' (cf. psychological time):
   *John was sharpening his knife **all day long**.* (even if exaggerated)
   *John was sharpening his knife **yesterday morning**.* (between dawn and noon)

6. verbs 'not normally' used in continuous may be used in ⑥, if time-point verbs refer to repetition; they form a **sequence of events**, thus take up space in time):
   Bombs were exploding all around Jane and John.

7. ⑥ may refer to past actions associated with typically **negative emotional overtones** such as annoyance, criticism (72:153), irritation or impatience:
   *Jane was lying in the sun **all day long**, doing nothing.*
   (So lunch consisted of canned food.)
   *She was **just** crying and crying. (for too long) Oh, did she?*
   (viewed as an undivided whole past event, sum of activities)
   *When at home, Jane was **always** snapping her fingers.*
2. other possible time adverbials, similarly to ②: *constantly, continually, forever*.

8. ⑥ may express **gradual development** of past actions or events or change of actions (cf. 'background' description):
   Jane was getting stronger and stronger.
   John's hair was getting whiter and whiter.

9. ⑥ may express **unfulfilled past intentions**, which may lead to (indirect) polite requests:
   I was hoping to meet you in the afternoon.
   John wasn't expecting much that night in the jungle.
   Jane was planning to see the colonel when she was assigned a job.
   I was wondering if you can help me with solving this puzzle.
   Verbs associated with this function are: *hope, expect, think, wonder*.

10. ⑥ is connected to **reported speech**, as definite 'near' future arrangements can be made in the past:
    John sharpened his knife as he was preparing for the thugs that night.
    Jane dressed elegantly that night for she was seeing the colonel at 9.

11. **incomplete** or **casual** past actions may be expressed with ⑥:
    Jane was telling me about the meeting, but then John showed up.
    You know, I was doing some work around the house.

The examples illustrate that certain time adverbials are frequent with ⑥, although hardly any time indicator is exclusive to any tense:

Word cloud 8. Time indicators for Past Continuous

2.6.3. Past Continuous and other tenses

2.6.3.1. Past Continuous and Past Simple

As described in 2.6.2., tense ⑥ and ⑤ have a lot in common. In fact, the "only difference is the speaker's perception of the action and whether particular attention is drawn to an extension in time" when using ⑥ (75:93). In the following, we would like to highlight further – subjective – differences in meaning between the use of these two tenses:

1. action in progress (partially finished) versus completely finished action:
   John was telling me about your case. (partial story)
   Jane told me about it. (the 'whole story')

2. story-telling with embedded background description:
   The Does were at home. They were preparing dinner together when the lights suddenly went out…

3. the same action viewed as a longer past activity (having in mind the details) compared to a simple past action (the whole series of activities altogether):
   John, I was trying desperately to contact headquarters all day yesterday.
   You tried it, did you? (simple, consumed activity)

4. disturbed action in the past compared to logical succession of events:
   Jane was hiding in the jungle when the thugs appeared.
   Jane hid in the jungle when the thugs appeared.
5. interrogatives about past actions in ⑥ may sound more scolding or politer than in ⑤:
   Why weren't you helping me?

Why didn't you help me? Did you want to see me?

6. ⑥ is typically associated with clearly specified time, while ⑤ is vaguer: *yesterday* is made up of 24 hours, in 2015 there were 365 days, *last week* may refer to any of the 7 days, any hour:
   *I couldn't answer the phone as I was watching a good film **at 9 p.m. on Friday**.*
   *I watched a good film **last week**.*

7. in cases where the same precise time indicator is used, we are faced with intentional versus routine actions:
   Jane was doing yoga from 6 to 7 a.m. yesterday morning.
   Jane did yoga from 6 to 7 a.m. yesterday morning, as usual.

8. sequence of actions may differ from 'caught in the middle of action':
   ⑤ + ⑤ *When Jane entered the colonel talked on the phone.*
   ⑤ + ⑥ *When Jane entered the colonel was talking on the phone.*

- nevertheless, the possibility of using either ⑤ or ⑥ reflects that it primarily depends on the "speaker's interpretation of the temporal quality of the event" (75:92).

9. both tenses may be used to express politeness with present reference (37:604); they are considered politer due to the fact that they sound less direct than present tenses" (43:171), which is referred to as 'distancing' (41:401); continuous forms sound politer than simple ones:
   I hoped / thought that you could help me.
   I wondered if he was at home and could help me.
   I was hoping / thinking that you would help me.

To sum up, ⑤ and ⑥ are used subjectively, to the favour of the latter in case the speaker would like to emphasise a limited period, an event extended in time, or an interrupted action (cf. 75:90).

2.6.3.2. Past Continuous and Present Continuous

There are a number of cases when ⑥ often stems from ②, as now is reinterpreted or adapted to past. While ② is for a limited period around now (75:92), ⑥ is for extended events then, before now. Thus the following possibilities for comparison arise:

1. single event:
   *Jane is attending a meeting **now**.*
   *Jane was attending a meeting **at 9 a.m. yesterday**.*

2. temporary situation:
   *Jane is living with her sister **now**.*
   ***In those days** Jane was living with her sister.*

3. gradual development of actions:
   *It's getting colder and colder (**nowadays**).*
   *It was getting colder and colder (**then**).*

2.7. Past Perfect Simple

Past Perfect Simple (sometimes called pluperfect or past retrospective), or tense ⑦, is similar in both form and usage to Present Perfect Simple, "except that instead of the events being before now, they are before a particular point in past time" (75:78).

As it is a past tense in both form and meaning, the auxiliary verb is *had* for all cases. It is also worth mentioning that whenever grammar books mention Past Perfect, it is understood as Past Perfect Simple.

2.7.1. Past Perfect Simple forms

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
I had eaten	*Had I eaten...?*	*I had not eaten*	*Hadn't I eaten?*
You had eaten	*Had you eaten...?*	*You had not eaten*	*Hadn't you eaten?*
He had eaten	*Had he eaten...?*	*He had not eaten*	*Hadn't he eaten?*
She had eaten	*Had she eaten...?*	*She had not eaten*	*Hadn't she eaten?*
It had eaten	*Had it eaten...?*	*It had not eaten*	*Hadn't it eaten?*
We had eaten	*Had we eaten...?*	*We had not eaten*	*Hadn't we eaten?*
You had eaten	*Had you eaten...?*	*You had not eaten*	*Hadn't you eaten?*
They had eaten	*Had they eaten...?*	*They had not eaten*	*Hadn't they eaten?*

Table 38. Forms of Past Perfect Simple

As all conjugation forms are identical for both strong and weak verbs, this is one of the easiest tenses regarding its form. However, its use may cause some problems, detailed below.

2.7.2. Uses of Past Perfect Simple

Although there are many possibilities to define its central use, the most concise one is the first one:

1. a past action before another past action ('past-in-the-past', 36:195):
   *Jane had dated Roger **before** she met John.*

This definition is a very important one, as it entails a few logical observations:

2. ⑦ is justified only in cases where we have two past actions (explicit or implied), and this is the older one; ⑦ is viewed as a distant past, compared to the other past action, closer to the present, which is either "another situation in the past" or "the past of the present perfect" (46:272), referred to as ⑤ or ③.

3. even if we have a few logical connectors (time adverbials or indicators) to express previous past actions (*after, already, because, before, then*), there are cases when it is important to emphasise former past actions:

   AFTER ⑦ + ⑤ => stressed series of events
   After Jane had met John, she never dated Roger again.
   AFTER ⑤ + ⑤ => storytelling in chronological order
   After Jane met John, she never dated Roger again.

   ⑦ / ⑤ + THEN ⑤
   Jane (had) dated Roger first, then she met John.

⑤ + BECAUSE ⑦
Jane was happy because John had bought her a bunch of red roses.

1. logical time indicators make it possible to change the chronological order:
   BEFORE ⑤ + ⑦ *Before she met John, Jane had dated Roger.*
   ⑤ + AFTER ⑦ *Jane never dated Roger again after she had met John.*
2. it may happen that the second action is not explicit:
   *Jane had **never** met John **before**.* (before that particular occasion)

4. a sub-type of the first usage is when the former past action must be over before another past action:
   BY THE TIME ⑤ + ⑦
   ***By the time** John arrived home, Jane had eaten all the cake.*
   BY (a particular time) + ⑦
   ***By 6 p.m.** Jane had eaten all the cake.*

5. another variant is when the former past action is not necessarily over:
   John had waited for Jane for ten minutes when he saw Roger.
   (he may decide to wait or not for Jane)
   Jane had waited for John at the extraction point since she finished her job.

6. similarly to Present Perfect Simple, ⑦ may refer to life experience (superlatives and ordinals enhance this experience, cf. 44:103):
   *Neverland was the **most fearful** place John had ever seen.*
   *It was **the first time** Jane had ever been to Neverland.*
   *It was only **the third time** John had met the general.*

7. story-telling in Past Simple may rely on previous actions as support, proof or 'background' explanation:
   On entering the store, she realised that she had forgotten her purse in the drawer.
   *John was angry with Jane **as / because** she had visited a former buddy.*
   (*as / because* introducing a logical explanation of a former past)

8. verbs having modal meanings (*expect, hope, intend, mean, plan, suppose, think, want, wish*) may express[1] unfulfilled, unrealised hopes, intentions, desires, expectations or wishes combined with ⑦:
   The headquarters had expected a more successful mission.
   The had hoped for fewer casualties.
   I had always hoped that one day I could tell you the whole story about the Does…
   Jane meant to have told John the news, but it was already too late.
   Jane had meant to tell John the news, but it was already too late. (more typical)
3. this case is also connected to reported speech; a similar expression is *was / were going to*:
   John was going to sharpen his knife but he couldn't find the honing steel.

[1] Cf. 8:157, 40:175, 23:469, 41:399.

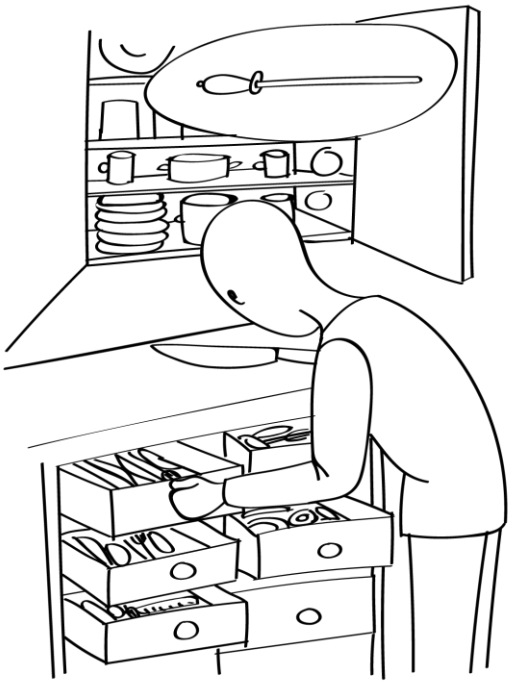

Illustration 22. John honing steel

9. verbs not normally used in continuous (instead of Past Perfect Continuous, see section 2.8.) may be used in ⑦:
   John had known Jane for three years when he finally popped the question.

The common element in all these cases is that we have no clue about the length of time between the two past actions, which can extend from a very short one to a very long time. Nevertheless, there are certain constructions meant to express a special case:

10. when two past actions come very close to each other, they are expressed by specific time indicators (*when … just, hardly … when, scarcely … when, barely … when* or *no sooner … than*):
    ***When** Jane reached the shore the thugs had (only) **just** disappeared in the jungle.*
    Jane wanted to discuss the details about the mission with John, but he'd just fallen asleep.
    *John had **hardly / scarcely / barely** entered the room **when** he saw that something was wrong.*
    *Jane had **no sooner** mentioned Roger's name **than** John turned red.*
4. there are even emphatic structures for formal English (65:41), when these time indicators start the sentence, causing inversion of the subject and predicate (as they are negative or 'half-negative' structures):
   ***Hardly** had John entered the room **when** he saw that something was wrong.*
   ***No sooner** had Jane mentioned Roger's name **than** John turned red.*
5. certain 'formulas' may be derived, where **⑦?** means that Past Perfect Simple is formally interrogative, even if its meaning is affirmative:

Hardly	⑦?	+	*when*	⑤
Scarcely	⑦?	+	*when*	⑤
Barely	⑦?	+	*when*	⑤
No sooner	⑦?	+	*than*	⑤

Table 39. Inversion with Past Perfect Simple

6. although *as soon as* or *once* is similar in meaning with the time indicators above, they are typically used in story-telling, combining two past actions (cf. 2.5.2.):
   ⑤ + ⑤
   As soon as Jane arrived home, she started to think about her next move.
   ⑦ + ⑤
   As soon as Jane had arrived home, she started to think about her next move.
   ⑦ + ⑤
   Once Jane had arrived home, she started to think about her next move.

11. Past Perfect Simple is also used in passive voice (see Chapter 3):
    Jane had been ordered to return to the base camp as soon as she finished her job.

12. certain conditional sentences also use ⑦ (see Chapter 5) to express unfulfilled conditions:
    If John had known about it, he would have killed the general.

13. certain hypothetical constructions also use ⑦ (see Chapter 6):
    Jane wishes / wished she had never left for Neverland.
    I'd rather Jane had never left for Neverland.

14. Past Perfect is also important in reported speech (detailed in syntax), as three tenses in direct speech become Past Perfect: Present Perfect Simple, Past Simple and Past Perfect Simple:
    John hoped he would return from Neverland as soon as he had accomplished his mission.

2.7.3. Time indicators for Past Perfect Simple

We have seen so far how important time indicators may be for ⑦, some of them even causing inversion. As ⑦ is the past counterpart for Present Perfect, the majority of time indicators for ③ may be re-used:

after	*for (~ a long time, ~ years, ~ ages)*	*yet*
already	*since*	*barely … when*
as (~ soon ~)	*(ever ~, ~ before)*	*hardly … when*
before (ever ~, long ~, never ~)	*then(up to ~)*	*no sooner … than*
because	*this is / was the first …*	*scarcely … when*
by (~ 8 o'clock, ~ the time)	*till (until)*	
	when (when … just)	

Table 40. Past Perfect Simple time adverbials

However, as mentioned in 3.1.3., time adverbials for tenses 'are not set in stone'; for instance, *today* may be connected with Past Perfect Simple (11:286):

> *She was thinking on her way to the cemetery: "Today the child had been dead a year." (*E. Forster*: The Longest Journey)*

2.7.4. Past Perfect Simple and other tenses

2.7.4.1. Past Perfect Simple and Past Simple

The main definition of ⑦ entails that its use is connected to ⑤ (even if sometimes implied). The following sentence pairs try to reflect it:

1. *before* versus *ago*:
   ⑦ *John had booked the room two weeks* ***before****.*
   ⑤ *John booked the room two weeks* ***ago****.*

2. *by the time* versus *when* ('the moment'):
   BY THE TIME ⑤ + ⑦
   ⑦ ***By the time*** *Jane arrived home, John had already left.*
   ⑤ ***When*** *John got there, Roger left.*

3. *when* may be understood as 'after', compared to 'the very moment'
   ⑦ *When Jane had finished her mission she returned to the base.*
   ⑤ *When Jane saw Roger she fainted.*

4. story-telling may refer to a previous action or state or to time of narration:
   ⑦ *Roger confessed that he had kissed Jane a couple of times before.*
   ⑤ *John confessed that he didn't like it.*

5. ⑤ is used when the logical connection between sentences is more important than the sequence of events (cf. the primary tense for story-telling is ⑤), especially when *before, after, then* help convey the interdependence:
   It was Nathaniel Hawthorne who first supported women's rights in America; before him, no man (had) bothered to help them.
   ⑦ *After John had slept for ten hours he woke up as fresh as a daisy.*
   ⑤ *After John slept for ten hours, he woke up as fresh as a rose.*

Although Past Perfect Simple has its own place within the English tense system, it may be replaced by Past Simple, especially on two occasions:

a) when the time adverbials signal the course of events *(before, after, then,* etc.).
b) when no particular attention is directed to a previous period (cf. 75:91):
   Jane and John knew each other for seven years.

2.7.4.2. Past Perfect Simple and Present Perfect Simple

We perfectly agree that "[t]he past perfect is the past equivalent of the present perfect" (33:175–178). This means, by and large, that Past Perfect Simple should be able to express results, recently finished actions or life experience in the past, similarly to Present Perfect in the present:

1. result in present and past:
   Jane has spotted some thugs.
   Jane had spotted some thugs before she got to the shore.

2. recently finished actions in present and past:
   John has just sharpened his knife.
   No sooner had John sharpened his knife than Jane entered the shed.

3. life experience becoming important in present and past:
   Jane has never been to Neverland before. (But she is there now.)
   Jane had never been to Neverland before (she met John).

Further occurrences of Past Perfect Simple are discussed connected to passive voice, conditional sentences, and hypothetical constructions (Chapters 3, 5 and 6), and it is also highly important in syntax (cf. sequence of tenses, reported speech):

John had been caught in an ambush before he could reach the extraction point.
If Jane hadn't bought some make-up, she would have returned to the shop.
Had John seen Roger, he would have killed him.
I wish the chapter had been shorter.
Jane confessed that she had fainted on seeing Roger again.

2.8. Past Perfect Continuous

Past Perfect Continuous – tense ⑧ – is similar in form and meaning to ④, with minor changes:

1. as for its form, the main auxiliary is *had* in all cases; as verbs in the III. form can be only 'secondary' auxiliaries (in our case *been*), the non-affirmative structures are formed with *had*, similarly to tense ⑦;
2. the meaning is 'adapted' to past, so the point of reference is *then, before now* instead of *now*.

2.8.1. Past Perfect Continuous forms

Affirmative	**Interrogative**
I / You had been eating *(S)he / It had been eating* *We / They had been eating*	*Had I / you been eating?* *Had (s)he / it been eating?* *Had we / they been eating?*
Negative	**Negative-Interrogative**
I / You had not been eating *(S)he / It had not been eating* *We / They had not been eating*	*Hadn't I / you been eating?* *Hadn't (s)he / it been eating?* *Hadn't we / they been eating?*

Table 41. Forms of Past Perfect Continuous

Had may be contracted either with the personal pronoun (*I'd*, *you'd*, etc.) or with the negative adverb *not* (*hadn't*).

2.8.2. Uses of Past Perfect Continuous

Tense ⑧ is the past correspondent of ④ (Present Perfect Continuous shifted into the past), so it may be applied in the following situations:

1. a psychologically (subjectively) longer past action going on for a certain period of time (referred to with the help of *for* or *since*) and disturbed by a shorter past action (typically ⑤):
   ⑧ + ⑤
   *John had been staring at Jane **for** ten minutes **when** he finally greeted her.*
   ***How long** had he been drinking **before** he plucked up courage to do that?*
   Jane had been waiting for that moment since she first saw John.
   - tense ⑧ may or may not be interrupted by the shorter past action, so it is safer to view it as a partial result in the past (*then, before now*), unless the context is clear:
     ***By the time** Jane turned 18, she had already been practising martial arts for three years.* (possibly continuing)
     ***By the time** Jane got there, John had been waiting for her for six minutes.* (logically, no more waiting)

2. similarly to ④, ⑧ can refer to clearly finished actions at a given past time, whose result is still 'visible' or 'traceable':
   *Why was Jane so worried yesterday? Because John had been missing **all day**.*
   *John had been trying to contact Jane **all day long**, but it was in vain.*

3. ⑧ may express repeated actions in the past (extending over a longer period), which may have emotional colouring (usually negative: anger, irritation, impatience, etc.):

*What (on earth) happened? I had been trying to reach you **all day long**.*

- however, using ⑧ may be a source of irony or humour, when associated with non-durative verbs:
  I had been kicking myself trying to remember the dog's name when it just bit me.

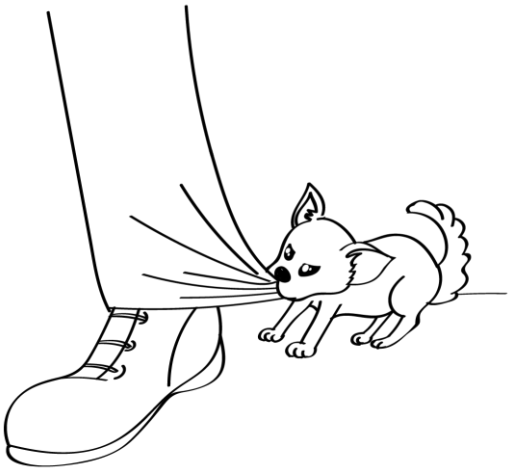

Illustration 23. I had been kicking

- although *want* and *wish* are non-durative verbs, they may be used in ⑧:
  John had been wanting for long to ask Jane to dance with him.

4. in case of verbs not normally used in continuous, ⑦ replaces ⑧:
   *I **had known** John for three years when he met Jane.*

Further details about ⑧ are discussed in connection with conditional sentences (Chapter 5), hypothetical constructions (Chapter 6), and – syntactically viewed – it is the tense for both Past Continuous and Present Perfect Continuous (in reported speech).

2.8.3. Past Perfect Continuous and other tenses

2.8.3.1. Past Perfect Continuous and Past Perfect Simple

Although there are cases when ⑦ and ⑧ are similar in use, it is worth focusing on their differences:

1. the most visible difference is that ⑦ is usually finished before the other past action starts, while ⑧ extends over the other past action, being disturbed but not interrupted:
   ⑦ + ⑤
   ***By the time** Jane arrived home, John had left.*
   ***How much** time had passed before he left?*
   ***How often** had he met her before the marriage?*
   ⑧ + ⑤
   By the time Jane arrived home, John had been peeling potatoes for ten minutes.
   (without having them finished)
   How long had he been peeling them?

- ⑧ may also be finished before the other past action, but the speaker psychologically views / feels it long enough to choose this over ⑦;

2. a repeated action may differ if we specify the number of repetitions versus the effect; repetition is connected to ⑦ (series of interrupted actions), while continuous (uninterrupted) activity is ⑧:
   ⑦ + ⑤ *John had tried to catch an eel sixty-seven times before he quit.*
   ⑧ + ⑤ *John had been trying to catch an eel in vain (all day long).*

- non-durative verbs are used in Simple (*break, decide, finish, forget, know, notice, stop*); durative verbs (*live, teach, wait*) may be used in **both** tenses with rather similar meaning;

3. in particular cases the use of ⑧ may be more 'mysterious' contributing to the suspense (psychologically motivated, emphasising the length):
   Jane had been searching in the database for three hours when Roger's name came up.

4. state of facts is used in Perfect Simple, while descriptive, temporary actions are Continuous (cf. 4:340):
   Jane had lived there since her childhood before she moved to the city.
   Jane had been living there for two weeks before she was hired.

In conclusion, we can agree that – by and large – ⑧ has a similar relationship with ⑦ as ④ has with ③.

2.8.3.2. Past Perfect Continuous and Past Continuous

As tense ⑧ is formally more 'complicated' than ⑥, it seems reasonable to be replaced by ⑥ whenever no special emphasis is needed regarding duration:

1. the time adverbials with *for* or *since* are used 'by default' with ⑧, but possible with ⑥ as well:
   ⑧ + ⑤
   The students had been waiting for the break for 45 minutes before the bell rang.
   ⑥ + ⑤
   The students were waiting eagerly (for 45 minutes) when the bell rang.

- the first case is more expressive, as it suggests the length of the activity (having in mind that a regular class lasts for 50 minutes), whereas the second sentence is a 'picture-like' description of a state of affairs.

2. Past Perfect Continuous may extend over a much longer period of time and it may have emotional colouring:
   ⑧ + ⑤
   He had been using cheat sheets since the beginning of the semester when he was caught. (unemotional report of two consecutive actions)
   ⑥ + ⑤
   He was using cheat sheets when he was caught doing it. (interrupted action)
   ⑧ + ⑤
   He had been using cheat sheets since October when he was finally caught.
   (the speaker considers it a very long time or is revolted by the fact)

To conclude with, we can agree that – by and large – ⑧ has a similar relationship with ⑥ as ④ has with ②. Other grammatical constructions with ⑧ are rather limited (e.g. reported speech).

2.8.4. Other tenses and constructions connected to past time

Past time is a rather large concept, and while past tenses may refer to it, there are other tenses for similar purposes (3:82–86):

1. ① Present Simple may be used for story-telling to add to the dramatic effect:
   And then John grabs the thug and throws him out of the window.

- ① Present Simple is the established equivalent for ⑤ Past Simple or ③ Present Perfect Simple in quotes, newspaper headlines and certain phrases:
  Benjamin Franklin says "Either write something worth reading or do something worth writing."
  Three ships sink in collision
  I hear that John killed four thugs.
  I am told that the colonel retires in December.
  I understand that you are not willing to help me any more…

2. ③ Present Perfect Simple (present 'retrospective') refers to past results in the present, life experience:
   Jane has done a lot for the government.

3. ④ Present Perfect Continuous may explain present results based on past actions:
   The Does have been trying in vain to forget the missions for ten years.

4. *used to* + I. and *would* + I. refer to specific past time events from the prism of present time:
   *When in high school John **used to** skip classes.*
   *When young we **would** often listen to heavy metal music.*

5. the speaker may look back on past intentions not carried out or interrupted with *was / were going to* + I.:
   *I **was going to tell** you the truth, but …*

6. the concept of 'Future-in-the-Past', connected to the sequence of tenses and reported speech makes it possible to refer to future events from the past (signalled by the use of *would*):
   She promised that she would never commit the same mistakes again.
   John knew that Jane would be sleeping by 11 p.m.

2.8.5. Conclusions to present and past tenses

We have seen that neither form nor meaning is an automatic indicator of present and past times. Thus tense names do not reflect their use, and may even be misleading (e.g. Present Perfect Simple).

Nevertheless, tense names can hardly be changed as they are the established equivalents to be found in major grammar books and are deeply rooted in English grammar. Yet we are trying to offer an alternative reference for the rather clumsy tense names by numbering them.

The importance of verb forms is emphasised all through the book, and – in our view – I. ("basic form for factuality", 75:137), II. ("factual and remote",[2] cf. 75:137) and III. verb forms are very useful, disregarding other grammar terms ('present simple verb form', 'past simple verb form', 'past participle', etc.), and are used consistently throughout the book.

The functional classification makes it possible to focus on the connections between strong, auxiliary and modal verbs as **operators**, which make it possible to formulate basic structures, such as the interrogative and negative as well as inversion, reaching the conclusion that *do* is used as a **dummy** operator (75:137) to preserve a logical structure verb forms and functions.

Although there may be alternative names for the same grammatical category, we preserve the most typical use, such as **continuous** instead of progressive or durative, although continuous actions may be interrupted. Similarly, **perfect** is preserved instead of retrospective, as the latter term has not taken root in mainstream grammar; in a similar vein, prospective will not be used (75:138, 159), although it reflects the basic idea of *am / are / is going to* effectively.

A final idea is to summarise past tenses highlighting their relationship, knowing that Past Simple describes a 'when?' situation, and it is the standard choice for storytelling (⑤ +⑤):

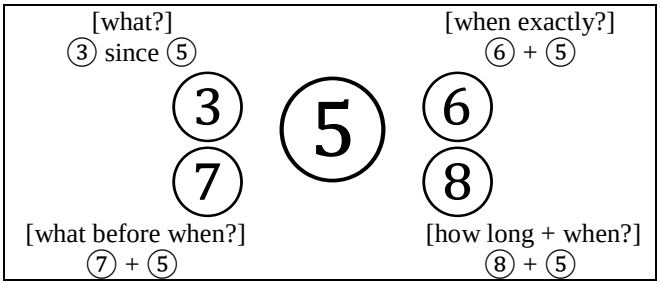

Table 42. Summary of Past tenses

[2] In our view, this is the most effective term for this verb form, making it able to explain Past Simple, conditional and hypothetical structures (Chapters 5 and 6) as well as politeness (tense forms and modal verbs in Chapter 7).

2.9. Future Simple

2.9.1. The concept of 'future' in English

Describing future time (*then, after now*) in English grammar is a rather irksome task. To start with, plenty of grammar books state that "[t]here is no future tense in modern English" (33:187), or "English does not have a future tense" (75:50) also mentioned in other sources;[1] other grammars "do not recognise a future tense for English" (87:208), although there are ways to express future time connected to concepts such as **look forward to**, **expect** or **hope** (41:175–177).

When talking about past and present time, people are "certain about the things they express" (65:201), but future statements are not factual but predictions, guesses (75:139), intentions and thoughts (65:201), and verb forms greatly depend on the speaker's choice.

It is known that there is an "intrinsic connection between future time and modality" (52:56) as "it isn't possible to be fully factual about future events or situations", which may still result in associating *will* (and *shall, should, would*) as the auxiliary verb expressing future.

However, this concept – although suitable for teaching English grammar – is rather controversial, as linguists say that "there is no grammatical category that can properly be analysed as a future tense" (87:209). There are extensive reasons why *will* and *shall* cannot be considered the auxiliaries of the future tense (30:160–161): they are modal verbs associated with volition, conditionality and implied promise, reaching the conclusion *that am / are / is going to* is "semantically, a better candidate for the marker of the future tense". Once we accept this view, we instantly reach a further conclusion, namely that English is abundant in **future possibilities**:

> There is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time / tense parallel for present and past. Instead there are a number of possibilities of denoting future time. Futurity, modality, and aspect are closely related, and future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple present or progressive forms. (29:87)

Non-native speakers cannot be satisfied with the absence of 'future tenses', knowing that "there are a number of possibilities of denoting futurity" (16:329).

An extra nuisance regarding the concept of future time is that "choices of form depend on how definite or certain the speaker wants to sound" (37:629), often relying on modal verbs (*will, shall*), semi-modal verbs or quasi-modal constructions (cf. catenative verbs). It is obvious that "modal and aspect combinations" (37:405) result in at least three different categories related to future time:

I. 'tenses' constructed by analogy, similarly to present and past tenses; as there is no possibility to express future time with inflected forms, the four present tenses are headed by the modal verbs *shall* and *will*, turning them into 'modal-auxiliary' verbs, resulting in the following "unhelpfully called"[2] future tenses:

1. **Future Simple** (cf. 2.9.) may seem to be the most neutral future, unless modal meanings of *shall* and *will* are considered, such as intention (33:180), prediction

[1] 36:213, 37:405, 45:72, 52:56.
[2] https://www.usingenglish.com/articles/ways-expressing-future-in-english.html, 19. 12 .2016.

(54:146) or willingness ('volitional' future). The name is used "for convenience … to describe the form *will / shall* + bare infinitive" (33:187);
2. **Future Continuous** is in fact Present Continuous shifted into the future ('future as a matter of course', cf. 2.10.2.), describing "an action in progress in the future" (54:146) or future routines;
3. **Future Perfect Simple** stems from Present Perfect Simple (future results obtained before / by a definite moment, cf. 2.11.2.), used when "projecting ourselves into the future and looking back at a completed action" (54:146);
4. **Future Perfect Continuous** comes to extend Present Perfect Continuous into the future (cf. 2.12.2).

II. **modal** verbs can also refer to future (or future oriented events), especially the group of central modals (cf. Chapter 7) as well as specific (semi-modal) constructions with a conjugated form of *be*; this category "may also express our attitude to the future" (54:146); certain constructions with be are particularly well suited to express specific future meanings:

1. ***going to* future** (cf. 2.13.), which is worth discussing together with Future Simple, hence we refer to it with number ⑬; its use is rather extended, ranging from logical deductions, present or future plans, predictions (based on evidence, cf. 54:146) and intentions or certainty about the future (*am, are, is going to* + I.) to unfulfilled intention (*was, were going to* + I.);
2. central modal verbs (Chapter 7):
   *You **can** do this, I know.*
   *One day you **may** become the President of the USA.*
   *Jane **might** be able to retire at the age of 55.*
3. ***be to*** (cf. 2.14.1.) may express formal future arrangements, commands, obligations intentions or plans in the present (*am, are, is to* +I.) or past (*was, were to* + I. 'destined to');
4. ***be about to*** (cf. 2.14.2.) may be used for near future ('immanent') actions or events used in the present (*am, are, is about to* + I.) or past (*was, were about to* + I.) referring to 'on the point of';
5. ***be bound to*** (cf. 2.14.3.)
6. ***be due to*** (cf. 2.14.4.)
7. ***be on the point of*** + I.-ing (cf. 2.14.5.)

III. present and past tenses (discussed previously), most prominently:
1. **Present Simple** for timetables, plans, itineraries;
2. **Present Continuous** for arrangements;
3. certain **past** tenses

IV. there are verbs triggering future connotation,[3] such as *anticipate, arrange, decide, envisage, expect, guarantee, hope, intend, plan, predict, promise, swear, undertake, wish*:
I hope we can meet tomorrow.
The Does intend to buy a country house.
Rain was predicted for tomorrow.

[3] Cf. 44:129, 45:81.

- these verbs may offer an 'elegant' option to 'get rid of' the intricacies of tenses and combine them with modal verbs or the infinitive. However, when we do not have this option, we have to rely on of one of the future tenses.

2.9.2. Future Simple forms

All 'future tenses' are formed with the help of *will* (or *shall*), which is basically a **modal** verb, gaining a certain auxiliary function associated with future time; although we cannot neglect its modal meanings, the "most common ways of expressing future time in the verb phrase are with *will* and *be going to*" (46:206). This section deals with Future Simple, referred to as tense ⑨ in the present book.

As this is the first time we use a modal verb in tenses, it is worth remembering a few things about modal verbs, especially their **auxiliary** and **operator** functions, presented with the help of *will.*

Will has a single form for all persons in both singular and plural, thus it is formally stronger than the strong, auxiliary or weak verb:

Ⓦ	Ⓐ	Ⓢ	Ⓜ
I go	*I am going*	*I am*	*I will go*
*He **goes***	*He **is** going*	*He **is***	*He **will** go*

Table 43. S-V agreement

The table clearly shows the difference: while the third person singular verb takes an 's' in case it is a weak, auxiliary or strong; modal verbs are 'special' in this respect, disregarding the essence of conjugation (different forms), having a single form. What is more, modal verbs break the link between the subject and the other verb types, so the following forms are strictly forbidden: *~~*He can goes*~~, *~~*He cans go*~~. *~~*She wills goes*~~. *~~*She will likes*~~, etc.[4]

As a consequence, all forms of Future Simple are identical in the conjugation table below in affirmative and non-affirmative cases:

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative	Negative-Interrogative
I will eat	*Will I eat?*	*I will not eat*	*Won't I eat?*
You will eat	*Will you eat?*	*You will not eat*	*Won't you eat?*
He will eat	*Will he eat?*	*He will not eat*	*Won't he eat?*
She will eat	*Will she eat?*	*She will not eat*	*Won't she eat?*
It will eat	*Will it eat?*	*It will not eat*	*Won't it eat?*
We will eat	*Will we eat?*	*We will not eat*	*Won't we eat?*
You will eat	*Will you eat?*	*You will not eat*	*Won't you eat?*
They will eat	*Will they eat?*	*They will not eat*	*Won't they eat?*

Table 44. Forms of Future Simple

There are two possibilities for contraction: *will* may be contracted as *'ll* (*she'll, we'll*), and *not* is typically contracted with *will* in speech as *won't*.

British or formal English uses *shall* and *shan't* for the first person singular and plural (*I shall, we shall*). The use of *shall* is less and less frequent in conversation (cf. 33:187), especially that the contracted forms of *shall* and *will* coincide (*'ll*). A rather jovial explanation accepts the use of *shall* and *shan't* in formal AE, when wishing "to write or speak with the highest degree of precision and formality" (55:91).

Nevertheless, the rare use of *shall* contributes to its importance as a modal verb, offering it an air style, irony, humour, etc., detailed in section 7.3.18.

[4] Unfortunately, we have to insist that all forms marked with * are incorrect.

Finally, it is interesting to see that a modal verb may be combined with a strong verb, in which case the modal verb takes of the grammatical (operator) function of *be*:

She is happy. Is she happy? She is not happy.
She will be happy. Will she be happy? She will not (won't) be happy.

2.9.3. Uses of Future Simple

However ardent are the defenders of *will* as a modal verb, it is true that when collecting instances of *will*, "most of them refer to future time" (75:31), although there are notable exceptions (cf. *Water will extinguish fire.*). Although "*will* is not 'the future' in English" (75:32), and it is "a mistake to introduce *will* / *shall* (or, indeed any other form)" as such (75:53), language learners will be acquainted with this possibility as one of the most convenient one to express future time.

Introduced as a 'speculation', the unstressed form (*'ll*) may be interpreted as a 'neutral future', mixed with "weak inevitability and psychological immediacy" (75:145). In the following we would like to present major uses of ⑨:

1. 'neutral' future events following a normal course, which are due to happen under normal circumstances'; normal circumstances may refer to either foreseeable and inevitable future, which may be 'out of control' (~ not controlled by human will), or referring to "absolute certainty" (37:631):
   Next month John will turn 44.
   Jane will visit her parents in Christmas, as she always does.
   Boys will be boys.
   She will forever regret that decision.
   The glass will break if you throw a stone at it.
   You will see that I'm right. She won't like it.
   (verbs of perception and non-conclusive verbs)
   - the examples also show that ⑨ is also used for repeated, habitual actions, story-telling or universal truths in the (indefinite) future (cf. ① and ⑤), as Mayakovsky's communist propaganda poster summarises:
     Lenin lived, Lenin lives, Lenin will live forever!

2. logical deductions regarding future events (11:290); this may stem from similar cases in the past:
   If your spinach is gone, that'll be Popeye.
   As you will already know, the test will take two hours.
   - logical deductions may be associated with present time as well, deriving from the modal meaning of *will*:
     This will be the key to open the lock. Try it!

3. future often takes the form of hope, belief, assumption, doubt, expectations, opinions, predictions or speculations about the future, which is unpredictable: opinion, personal analysis or judgement (44:120):
   I believe she will make a good doctor (one day).
   Jane doubts that John will ever return to Neverland.
   I'm sure you will pass the exam with flying colours.
   He will probably be given an award.
   Will you still love tomorrow? (The Shirelles)
   - this is often signalled (33:189–190) by certain introductory verbs: *assume, be afraid, be sure, believe, doubt, expect, fear, feel sure, guess, hope, intend, know,*

plan, presume, suppose, think, wonder, or adverbs (*certainly, perhaps, possibly, probably, surely*); the present form of these modal expressions results in future (16:332);

- the sentences also show that the actions expected may be in the near or distant future, but they are better conceived as 'timeless'; as they haven't happened yet, it is logical to think of them as future events; a possible alternative for this case is the Going to Future, discussed in a separate section.
- this case is notable among the very few exceptions when Future Simple appears in a sub-clause.

4. once future is regarded as uncertain, ⑨ may typically express flippant, hollow promises, especially when made while speaking, noticing or seeing something (typically distant future or associated with lack of intention); these may be regarded as decisions, future plans made while involved in a conversation (which is often the triggering event for the plan):
   OK, teacher, I will learn the irregular verbs for next time…
   (On seeing Miss World 2016) I will learn Spanish…
   - clearly, these statements have been triggered by some external factors, and this is our reaction to them, not really giving them a second thought; consequently, promises made this way are rarely taken seriously;
   - typical time adverbials are: *soon, shortly, then, after, before*, etc.

5. intentions, promises, promise-like statements may also turn very serious ones, when they are decided 'on the spot' and quick, immediate decisions are made from an inward compulsion (triggering a near-future event) or reacting to a present situation (unpremeditated intention), offering an air of modality:
   Now that you mention it, I will gladly accept your invitation.
   There's a knock at the door. I'll get it.
   OK, I'll take two of them. Gift-wrapped, please.
   - in these cases, *would like* is often a possible alternative to *will* (33:189–190) expressing decision, immediate intention, spontaneous decision (44:124), request or invitation:
     What would you like? Will you come to my party?
     I'll have a tea, please. I'd like a tea, please.
   - although ⑨ may be associated with both 'near' future and 'more distant' future, these terms are rather subjective.

6. (highly) formal announcements, official schedules, newspapers, broadcasts:
   The President will visit the orphanage on Monday.

7. in the case of verbs not normally used in continuous, ⑨ is used instead of Future Continuous:
   The colonel will see the change in John, but I'm afraid he won't like it.

8. in the case of temporal and conditional clauses only the main clause is in ⑨, while the sub-clause is in ① or ③ ("completion of event is emphasised", 32:8):
   I will put an end to this relationship if you want me to.
   I will fetch a car after it has got dark.
   - however, if the subordinate clause is a direct object, future is preserved (23:449), as it is considered to be reported speech:

I'd like to know when John will help me. (temporal)
I don't know if John will ever come to rescue me. (conditional)
I think she will enjoy the show.

9. 'simple', 'general' 'colourless' or 'neutral' future events without any of the previously listed meanings, signalled by future time adverbials:
*Jane will polish her guns **tomorrow**.*
*John will go to the headquarters **next week**.*
*I will meet them **in July / on Monday**.*

- 'frequentative' *will* may refer to repeated actions in the future, deriving from present habits (23:448):
Whenever she is happy, she will hum an interesting tune.
John will sit for hours in the jungle. (that's his 'style')

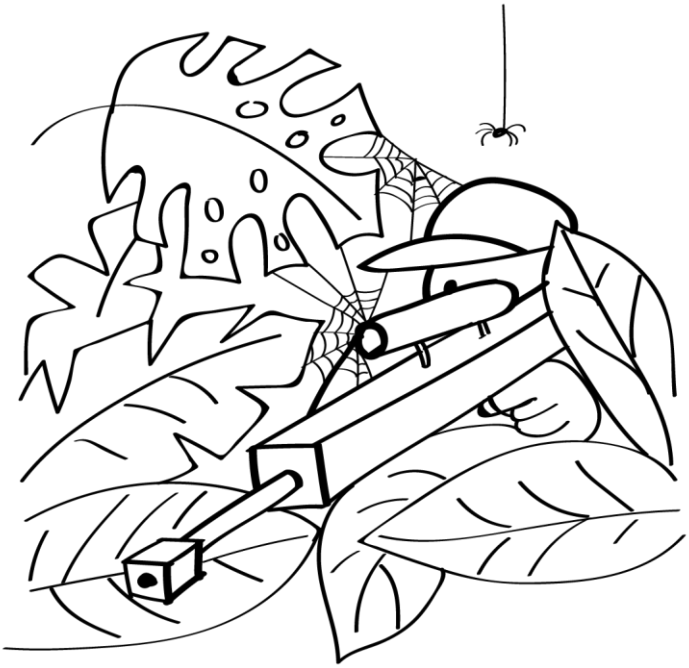

Illustration 24. John will sit for hours

The cases above use *will* as the auxiliary verb for future; however, it is obvious that the auxiliary and modal functions of *will* (and *shall*) often overlap, and even if they "are the closest approximations to a colourless, neutral future, they do cover a range of meanings with modal colouring, from prediction to volition" (36:213–214). Thus we can discuss predictive, volitional and even obligational examples, mainly driving from **modal** meanings.

2.9.3.1. Will

- volition, determination:
I'd like to know whether Jane 'will carry on. I know John won't.
OK, just time I will help you. (whatever it takes)
- promise:
I'll learn the irregular verbs.

- prediction, assumption:
  Jane will go to bed as she hasn't slept a wink for 36 hours.
- obligation ("quasi-military command", 36:214):
  You will follow the rules.
  John will report to the general at 1900 hours.
- threat or warning:
  Whatever you do, you will fail the exam.
- (utter) refusal, unwillingness:
  I won't ever trust you again! She won't listen to me. (people)
  The window is stuck, it won't open. (things)
- invitation:
  Will you have a seat, please?
- offer:
  I'll take care of the house until you're gone (if you want me to).
- request:
  Will you do me a favour, please?
- question tag following an imperative:
  Leave me alone, will you?
- logical deduction referring to a present situation:
  This will be the place she was talking about.

2.9.3.2. Shall

- proposal, offer for help (polite):
  Shall I fetch you a drink?
- ask for advice or opinion:
  Shall I marry him or not?
- promise:
  You shall have your desire.
- threat:
  They shall pay for this.
- suggestion (when it starts with *Let's,* then the question tag contains *shall*):
  Shall we do that again?
  Let's stop here, shall we?
- formal or legal regulations (stating rules, laws, legal provisions, cf. 37:633), similar to indirect commands (deriving from rules):
  The Parliament shall consist of two houses.
- extremely strong prohibition: the biblical Decalogue (Ten Commandments) contains eight negative rules with *shall*, e.g. rules 6–8 below:
  You shall not murder.
  You shall not commit adultery.
  You shall not steal.
- today *mustn't* is more commonly used for this type of prohibition, not to mention that newer Bible editions simply eliminate modal verbs in the Ten Commandments (e.g. *Don't steal.*);
- intention or strong determination:
  Whatever happens, we shall return home.
  We shall never surrender.
- although *will* is typical for determination, 'orators' may need a less frequent word to capture attention (cf. public speaking debates, political discourses, etc.);

- obligation or order:
  You shall never return to Neverland!
- request for order, instruction, ask for help:
  'What shall we do with the drunken sailor?'

Finally, we can observe that a certain 'indefinite' (future) tense may be associated with proverbs:[5]

An old dog will learn no new tricks.
Give a thief enough rope and he'll hang himself.
He who keeps company with the wolf will learn to howl.
Much will have more.
Nature will take its course.
What is bred in the bone will never come out of the flesh.
You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours.

2.9.4. Future Simple and other tenses

We have seen that Future Simple may be viewed as the logical extension of repeated actions or habits deriving from the past and present. However, ⑨ may be more directly connected to present or past events.

2.9.4.1. Future Simple and Present Simple

Present Simple is the most convenient tense to either replace or complete ⑨:

1. when there is a time indicator for future in the sentence:
   Next week Jane turns 26. Next week Jane will turn 26.

2. however, ① may also be combined with Future Simple or even Future Perfect Simple, as there is no future tense in temporal sub-clauses:
   Jane will do the job after she gets half the money.
   By the time Jane receives the other half she will have eliminated the targets.

3. one of the most straightforward way to express duration is to involve ① in a series of repetitive events, facts, permanent truths, combined with Past and Future Simple:
   Freedom was important, is important, and will always be important for everyone.

4. although it possible to join two join two Future Simple actions with a coordinative conjunction (*and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet*), it is more common to see ⑨ combined with clauses of condition, time or purpose:
   ⑨ + ⑨
   I will beat the carpets ***but*** *you will dust the furniture for Christmas.*
   ⑨ + ①
   Jane will be promoted ***if*** *she returns home.*
   ① + ⑨
   If *Jane returns home, she will have a long vacation.*
   ① + ⑨
   By the time *I finish the meal, I will be hungry again.*
   ⑨ + ①

[5] http://buklib.net/books/31387/, 24. 01. 2017.

*John will get another job **after** he recovers from the previous one.*

The last example shows that conditional and temporal clauses may overlap. Non-native speakers would often be tempted to use ⑨ in the sub-clause, but it is not correct.

Other time adverbials joining a main clause in ⑨ and a sub-clause in ① are: *after, as long as, as soon as, before, by the time, till, until, when, while*, etc. Thus the combination of ⑨ + ① is also used for simultaneous actions. However, *when* may function as a question word, in which case it may be followed by ⑨:

When will you help me to prepare for the exams?
Nobody knows if / when / whether the Does will return home.
(reported speech question, cf. 3:93)

2.9.4.2. Future Simple and Present Perfect Simple

While the previous section describes a normal series of future actions, the condition or temporality may be emphasised by combining ⑨ with Present Perfect Simple, which suggests a highlighted series of events. Thus the completion of the previous action is emphasised by the combination of ⑨ + ③ (cf. 3:93–95):

① + ⑨ for standard procedure
***When** Jane **eliminates** the bad guys, she will be rewarded.*
⑨ + ③ for emphasised order of events
*John will infiltrate the barracks **after / when / as soon as** it **has got** dark.*
*Jane will eliminate the thugs **before** the headquarters **have given** the order.*
③ + ⑨
After / As soon as you have eaten your spinach, I will give you a bar of chocolate.
(I'm afraid that otherwise you wouldn't consume the spinach.)

A partial summary is that the full picture of Future Simple is affected by its relationship with Present Simple; however, we are yet to discuss going to as a future alternative compared to Future Simple (cf. 2.13.), but not before other 'future tenses' are presented.

2.10. Future Continuous

The last three tenses may be compared with reference to a certain point in the future. While **Future Continuous** is going on **at that specific time**, **Future Perfect Simple** is **over before / by that time**, and **Future Perfect Continuous** is going on **at that specific time**, but we know the **duration** (expressed by *for* or *since*).

Although projected / shifted in the future, Future Continuous is similar to Present Continuous and Past Continuous in form and meaning. We will refer to it as Future Continuous or tense ⑩, detailed in the following.

2.10.1. Future Continuous forms

As *will* is the primary auxiliary for this tense, all persons and numbers are conjugated similarly:

Affirmative	**Interrogative**
I will be going *I'll be going*	*Will I be going?*
Negative	**Negative-Interrogative**
I will not be going *I won't be going*	*Won't I be going?*

Table 45. Forms of Future Continuous

2.10.2. Uses of Future Continuous

Based on the fact that this tense is similar to Present and Past Continuous, it should refer to future actions and events going on a definite moment or period of time in the future. A very good summary of its use is the following:

> Future Continuous is interesting for what it doesn't express. There is no element of intention, volition or plan. The speaker is saying that in the natural course of events the action will take place independently of the will or intention of anyone concerned. It is a casual way of looking at the future… (67:148)

As tense ⑩ is a continuous tense (temporary, limited, taking up space / extended in time, bi-punctual, *then + after now*, cf. 75:96), the following logical uses arise:

1. an action going on at a **definite moment** in the future:
   *Try not to disturb the Does at 5 a.m., as they'll be sleeping **then**.*
- the lack of time adverbial may indicate that the action is near future (16:342):
  I'll be watching the game tomorrow. ('psychologically' more distant)
  I'll be watching the game.

2. a (**temporary**) action going on during a period of time (e.g. *this time tomorrow*):
   *Try not to disturb the Does **from** 11 p.m. **to** 6 a.m., as they'll be sleeping then.*
   ***In ten years' time** we will be living in Spain.*
   *The Does will be chasing thugs **all night**.*
- these two cases are often predictable future actions characteristic for a certain period of time (routines) or **logical deductions**, assumptions:
  Don't daydream. You'll be crying.

3. a possible variant refers to **two parallel actions** (arrangements) in the future:

a) both tenses are Future Continuous (less stylish):
⑩ WHILE ⑩
*Jane will be searching in the house **while** John will be looking for the enemy in the shed.*

b) Present Continuous combined with Future Continuous:
WHILE ②, ⑩
***While** Jane is watching TV, John will be sharpening his knife, as usual.*

c) Future Continuous combined with Present Simple:
⑩ WHEN ①
*As agreed, the crowd will be cheering the President **when** he arrives.*

4. Future Continuous may express a **future plan** or programme, but it may be simply the normal course of events ('as a rule'):
We'll be seeing each other on Saturday, as usual.

5. neutral statements not necessarily associated with future (8:170):
The company will be preserving its high standards.
For safety reasons we will be travelling with reduced speed.

6. a future action considered to be long by the speaker:
On Monday I will be digging the garden all day long.
Jane will be helping John tomorrow. (for a longer period of time)

7. **predicted events**, repeated actions, usual events, normal course of events (14:28), future-as-a-matter-of-course,[1] future without intention (16:343), events due to happen (37:634), daily routines projected in the future:
At 11 p.m.? He will be chasing wrongdoers as he always does.
Don't listen to him! He will be making fun of you as usual.
The Does will be missing the quiet days when they reach Neverland.

8. it may express present suppositions, presumptions (23:476):
You'll be wondering why Jane and John were selected for the job.

9. (over)**polite questions** about future plans or intentions may be formulated with ⑩; it may be used as "a request for information rather than a request for action" (72:151), but it may also be associated with "ulterior motives" (7:122):
Where will you be working when in Rome?
When will you be visiting us?
Will you be working this weekend?

- however, other tenses are also possible, such as ⑬ or ⑨:
Where are you going to work?
Where will you work?

2.10.3. Future Continuous and other tenses

2.10.3.1. Future Continuous and Future Simple

The most important difference between tense ⑩ and ⑨ is regarding **intention**:

[1] 15:97, 36:216.

1. while ⑩ refers to future (repeated actions) without intention, ⑨ is connected to intentional future:
   ⑩ *I'll be missing you.* ('mere' statement)
   ⑨ *I'll go and get some drink.* (deliberate action)

2. other differences derive from the modal meaning (more explicit in ⑨):
   ⑩ *I won't be seeing her.* (statement of fact, providing information)
   ⑨ *I won't see her.* (refusal)

3. in a similar vein, statement versus invitation, request or command may be distinguished (mostly deriving from the 'inherent' meaning of *will* and / or Continuous aspect):
   ⑩ *Jane will be working for the government.* (fact, providing information)
   ⑩ *Will you be working full time at the company?* (asking for information)
   ⑨ *Will you join me?* (invitation)
   ⑨ *Will you help me?* (request)
   ⑨ *You will do as I say.* (command)

4. a question formulated in ⑩ sounds politer than a question in ⑨:
   ⑩ *When will you be helping me with the project?*
   ⑨ *When will you help me with the project?*

2.10.3.2. Future Continuous and Present Continuous

In many cases ⑩ is 'simplified' and replaced by ②:

1. when future time indicators are used:
   I'll be working from 8 to 12 on Saturday.
   I'm working from 8 to 12 on Saturday.

- the difference between these two tenses lies in routine-like future events (normal course of events) compared to premeditated future plans or arrangements (deliberate actions, "surprising, unexpected activities" 35:28):
  Jane will be sleeping until 11 a.m. on Sunday, as usual.
  (routine, normal course of events)
  Jane is sleeping until 11 a.m. on Sunday as she can stay at home all day long.
  (She has disabled the alarm clock.)
  Imagine, the Does are returning home next week!

2. however, if this difference is not important, both of them may be used for actions going on in the future, which is also strengthened by mutual time indicators: *(at) this time tomorrow, this time next week / month, from … to*.

3. on the other hand, ⑩ may be more suitable for commercial purposes, as it may suggest more than the pure action (8:171):
   We will be presenting our products from 11 a.m. in the lobby.
   We will be offering special discounts for a limited time after the event.
4. the interrogative forms differ in purpose:
   Will you be joining the product presentation? (polite question about future plans)
   Are you joining us for the product presentation? ('just asking')
   Are you going to join us for the product presentation? (asking about intention)

2.11. Future Perfect Simple

This is a rarely used tense (4:356), as it is often replaced by Future Simple (23:478), and its non-affirmative forms are purely theoretical. We refer to it either with the full name or the circled number ⑪.

2.11.1. Future Perfect Simple Forms

As *will* is the primary auxiliary for this tense, all persons and numbers are conjugated similarly:

Affirmative	**Interrogative**
I will have gone *I'll have gone*	*Will I have gone?*
Negative	**Negative-Interrogative**
I will not have gone *I won't have gone*	*Won't I have gone?*

Table 46. Forms of Future Perfect Simple

2.11.2. Uses of Future Perfect Simple

As its name suggests (**future** and **perfect**), this tense is connected to results obtained by or before a definite future moment, although we cannot refer to it as 'past in the future' (cf. 75:76); it is mainly used to express the following:

1. finished actions by / before a definite moment in the future:
   Jane will have returned home by 5 a.m.
   ***In ten years' time** I will have bought a house.*
   - typical time indicators are: *by that time, by the time, by this time tomorrow, by then, a year from now, by the end of the year, in a month*.
   - certain constructions with *be* use ⑨ instead of ⑪ (cf. 8:158):
     She'll be ready by 4 a.m.

2. it can express "strong probability or virtual certainty in the present, with reference to an action performed at a previous moment" (13:257) or "assumption on the part of the speaker" (32:8), but other grammar books also mention this use:[2]
   The Does will have left Neverland by now.
   (I suppose they've already left Neverland.)
   You will have heard John Doe's name in the TV-series Suits.
   (You must have heard John Doe's name from Suits.)

3. it is used to indicate a completed future action before another future action occurs; in this case the sub-clause is typically Present Simple:
   BY THE TIME ① + ⑪
   ***When** John retires, he will have worked for the government for twenty-five years.*
   If John is not at the extraction point in time, he won't have finished his job yet.
   ***By the time** Jane arrives home, John will have eaten all the cake.*

[2] 15:104, 23:478.

Illustration 25. By the time Jane arrives home

4. it is also used with 'verbs not normally used' in continuous (instead of Future Perfect Continuous); in this case the action extends over the time limit:
   By the end of the year we will have known each other for ten years.
   At the end of this chapter the reader will have been captive for 10 minutes.

5. a specific construction with ⑪ and ordinal numbers (similarly to Present Perfect Simple and Past Perfect Simple) is to be noted (70:130):
   ***This is the third time** the CEO **will have announced** the marketing of a new gadget.*
   ***That's the last time** John **will have warned** them about the inside man.*

The examples reflect that ⑪ primarily focuses on the 'endpoint' of the activity. Thus the activity may have started in the past, present or may even start at the moment of speech or any other future time on condition that it ends before the future reference point:

I will have read James Clavell's Shogun by December.

The sentence encapsulates at least three possibilities:

a) I started reading the book in January, it is May, so I estimate that a period of **further** six or seven months is enough to finish it, so it is over before December;
b) we are in May, I take a look at the book, and I estimate that I can finish the book in six or seven months **starting from now**;
c) we are in May, I take a look at the book, and I estimate that even if I start reading it **any time in the future**, I can finish it by December.

The conclusion is that even if the starting point is not always specified (it is irrelevant), it is vital to have the action finished / completed by a particular point in the future.

2.11.3. Future Perfect Simple and other tenses

2.11.3.1. Future Perfect Simple and Future Continuous

We have mentioned that the common element in tense ⑪ and ⑩ is the future reference point. However, while the action is over by that particular time in ⑪, it is still going on if ⑩ is used:

The Does will have had breakfast by 9 a.m.
The Does will be having breakfast at 9 a.m.

2.11.3.2. Future Perfect Simple and Present Simple

English sub-clauses referring to future time are typically constructed with present tenses, most typically Present Simple. In our case, it is worth observing the following construction:

BY THE TIME ① + ⑪
By the time *I understand this tense I will have forgotten all the previous ones.*

2.11.3.3. Perfect Simple tenses

All three Perfect Simple tenses are constructed similarly in form and meaning. It is clear that all three express a **specific result** at a definite moment in the past, present and future:

Result in		
③	present	*The Does have returned home.*
⑦	past	*The Does had returned home by 5 a.m.* *The Does had returned home before their neighbours woke up.*
⑪	future	*The Does will have returned home by 5 a.m.* *The Does will have returned home before their neighbours wake up.*

Table 47. Perfect Simple results

The sentences above show that the present, past and future reference points are viewed as obstacles and the Perfect Simple actions cannot extend beyond that point. The only exception for all three cases is when verbs not normally used in Continuous are implied:

1. ③ instead of ④:
   *We **have been** here **since** morning.*

2. ⑦ instead of ⑧:
   *We **had been** there for a long time **when** Jane showed up.*

3. ⑪ instead of Future Perfect Continuous (cf. the next section):
   This time next month the Does will have been there for ten years.
   We will have gone crazy before / by the time we finish this stuff.

2.12. Future Perfect Continuous

This tense is often considered "awkward, rare and forced" (2:31), so it is often neglected in grammar books published lately. Even if it 'sounds complicated', it fits into the system of tenses, thus we will discuss it either as Future Perfect Continuous or tense ⑫.

2.12.1. Future Perfect Continuous forms

As *will* is the primary auxiliary for this tense, all persons and numbers are conjugated similarly:

Affirmative	Interrogative
I will have been working *I'll have been working*	*(How long) will you have been working?*

Table 48. Forms of Future Perfect Continuous

As "no negative forms are used",[1] the table shows only affirmative and interrogative forms.

2.12.2. Uses of Future Perfect Continuous

This tense has one central use: to express actions going on for a certain period of time (*for* or *since* compulsory) at a definite moment in the future:

This time next year we will have been living in Spain for five years.

A closer look at the sentence reveals that tense ⑫ typically needs two time indicators:

- one of the time indicators marks the future reference point (similarly to tense ⑩ and ⑪);
- the other time indicator marks the length of the activity, expressed by *for* or *since*;

It is obvious that tense ⑫ is the combination of tense ④ (marked by *for* or *since*) and tense ⑩ (*this time next …*):

④ *The Does have been working for the government* ***for*** *many years.*
⑩ ***This time next year*** *the Does will be working for the government.*
⑫ ***This time next year*** *John will have been working for the government* ***for*** *9 years.*

As a direct consequence, tense ⑫ is often neglected due to the possible alternatives, unless the speaker wants to emphasise the importance and length of the action combined with a '**round' anniversary**:

By Monday *we will have been killing ourselves with this grammar* ***for a fortnight****.*

Similarly to tense ⑪, the action may have started before the moment of speech or any time after, but we know how long the action is going on at the future reference point, and probably extending beyond that.

It is also worth noticing that it is rather subjective what may be considered as a 'round' anniversary: it may be *7 minutes*, *2 days* or even *18 years*.[2] Most simply, it may be a temporal clause with Present Simple:

① + ⑫
When John returns home, Jane will have been sleeping for twelve hours.

[1] 2:31, 4:359.
[2] Although this seems to be shocking for mathematicians, humans are rather inventive.

When I enter the class, the teacher will have been talking about the tenses for half an hour.
(I'm always late for this class, so I know in advance what to expect.)

2.12.3. Future Perfect Continuous and other tenses

2.12.3.1. Perfect Continuous Tenses

While ⑫ is the 'longest' possible tense, it is used to express actions in a similar way to Present Perfect Continuous or Past Perfect Continuous:

④ (up to now, but I'm still staying there)
I have been staying at the Ritz for five days.

⑧ (but I still stayed there after the meeting)
I had been staying at the Ritz for five days when I met Izzy.

⑫ (and I still have enough money for further days)
By Saturday I will have been staying at the Ritz for a week.

2.12.3.2. Future Perfect Continuous and Future Perfect Simple

The main difference between these tenses is that the action in ⑪ stops by the definite moment in the future, while it typically extends beyond that moment in ⑫:

⑪ *By 2050 the Does will have retired.*
⑫ *By 2050 the Does will have been working for the government for 45 years.*

This means that ⑪ expresses a **final** result, while ⑫ a **partial** result up to the future point. Naturally, verbs 'not normally used' in Continuous are expressed with ⑪:

⑪ *This time next year the Does **will have known** each other for 25 years.*

2.13. Going to Future

At first sight, this 'tense' is an authentic misfit compared to the previous future tenses. Most grammar books consider it a "future semi-auxiliary construction" (36:210, 46:259), or a semi-modal verb (22:337, 30:133) connected to future, although rare in formal texts (30:142).

More daring approaches consider it a "future in the present" (30:144) or "prospective future" (75:84), as a possible counterpart of tense ③, which offers the result of a previous event in the present. The result of this structure is visible in the future. This may be further supported by the fact that in certain cases the story related to the future time starts with going to, but on further occasions will is used.

However, if we get over its puzzling form, we will discover its importance considering its possible meanings. The title signals that even if many grammar books refer to it as *(to) be going to*, this form is so theoretical that it is hardly ever used in practice; instead, we have *am, are, is, was* and *were* + going to forms,[1] which is too long to refer to it this way all the time; hence we introduce the abbreviation [aiw], which encapsulates all five forms reflected in this structure, which is not an isolated case. Further ones are mentioned in section 12.4., where [aiw] may be followed by *to, about to, bound to, due to, on the point of,* and *on the verge of*.

As the meaning of this structure is strongly related to ⑨ (cf. 2.13.3.1.), we discuss it as 'tense' ⑬ in our system, often referred to as the **near future** (23:473), even if there are other constructions to express near future (cf. 2.14.); what is more, recent grammar books refer to it as expressing "a more distant point in the future" (32:7).

Although associated with future in meaning, we must not forget that the structure is in fact a present tense form (41:188), an idiosyncratic, idiomatic combination of lexical verbs, gaining even a modal meaning (77:305–309), which is nevertheless denied (75:141); more than that, it may reflect a multitude of puzzling meanings (near future, inevitability, immediacy, weather forecast, etc.):

> The expressive "going to-future" often assumes emotional value implying various subtle shades of meaning, such as, for instance, caution or warning, prophecy or encouragement, prohibition or categorical command. Contextual nuances of such use are very elusive. (48:158)

Thus, in present day English, it functions as a separate tense, and one of the most authoritative sources even considers it to be the most common future form (37:629).

2.13.1. Going to Future forms

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I am going to eat	*Am I going to eat?*	*I am not going to eat*
You are going to eat	*Are you going to eat?*	*You are not going to eat*
He is going to eat	*Is she going to eat?*	*It is not going to eat*
We are going to eat	*Are they going to eat?*	*We are not going to eat*

Table 49. Forms of Going to Future

[1] Although the expression may undergo grammaticalization, as in *I will be going to* visit Aunt Mildred tomorrow. (https://web.stanford.edu/class/linguist203/203-2.html), we still do not consider it relevant enough to reject the [aiw] *going to* form.

The Negative-Interrogative forms are listed below, knowing that the auxiliaries may be replaced by ain't, whereas *going to* may become *gonna* in all forms in AE:

Aren't I going to eat?
Isn't he going to eat?
Isn't it going to eat?
Aren't we going to eat?

It is visible that the construction resembles ② (Present Continuous), thus some forms are not listed in the table.

As discussed in the introductory section, this construction is viewed as a 'future' tense, with one of the five possible forms of to *be* as its 'auxiliary' verb; most typically the present forms are used (*am, are* or *is*), followed by *going to* and a I. verb form.

When the future action is projected from the past, *was* or *were* is used, to be exemplified later. However, when the non-affirmative forms are constructed, it is clear that only the *be* derivative is used as the auxiliary.

The negative-interrogative form implies that it is an invitation to act, suggesting that this is the reasonable thing to do (30:153).

Going to is typically contracted as *gonna* in AE, in which case it is possible to use *go* as the weak verb; as it conceals repetition, this is frown upon in BE:

I'm gonna do it now.
*Jane**'s not gonna go** there alone.*

This form is also used with verbs 'not normally used' in continuous:

I am going to think twice about it.
I'm sure you're going to enjoy the show.

The I. verb form after [aiw] *going to* helps us differentiate this tense from ② (Present Continuous), as ⑬ is always followed by a verb:

② *You are killing me with these sentences.*
⑬ *Jane is going to kill her enemies.*

Although grammar books refer to ⑬ as *be going to* + infinitive, the form by itself will not always help:

*John **is going to buy** some chips.*	⑬ *What is he going to do?* (in the near future)
	② *Where is he going?* (right now)

Table 50. Going to + I. meanings

The meaning of the sentence is derived from the context, so it is time to investigate the possible meanings of ⑬.

2.13.2. Uses of Going to Future

To start with, this tense is "non-modal", "non-volitional" and it "does not involve the speaker's personal judgment" (75:141), although it may seem so, reflected in the uses presented below:

1. ⑬ reflects **evidence-based** future events (75:81):

- external evidence available for both the speaker and the listener (at the moment of speaking):
  Now the shop assistant is going to open the cash desk.

- evidence might be available to the speaker only:
  I know Jane is not going to give up.
- internal evidence or knowledge:
  Are you going to buy that dress?
- in these cases, "the future event is a projection or extrapolation of events preceding, and up to, the point now" (75:140); this leads to highly probable near-future events ('on the way'), in which case the speaker expresses the certainty of the forthcoming action (immediate future often combined with a warning, 44:120, 30:145):
  Look! John is going to shoot the target.
  Jane is going to have a baby soon.
  Hurry up, it's going to snow.
  (cf. ⑬ is often used in **weather forecasts**)
- although *will* may be used in weather forecast, it is only in written form and it is nevertheless a prediction with an "air of authority" (30:143):
  *It **will snow** in all northern parts of the country.*

2. a possible entailment of the previous case is that events are already in development at the time of speaking (based on previous knowledge, a special type of evidence):
   Jane is going to finish the mission, whatever it takes.

3. the previous case may be viewed as a logical deduction, as "the train of events is already in motion" (30:146) or things "are on the way" (41:189):
   As the bus is late, I'm not going to make it in time for work.
- the narration precedes the 'imminent' action felt 'inevitable', as the prediction is usually based on present evidence, triggering a certain warning; yet, it can simply express neutral, impersonal[2] statements:
  Brazil is going to win the World Cup again.

4. evidence may lead to certain future plans or decisions:
   I can't take it anymore; I'm going to tell him the truth.

5. possible evidence may lead to probability, predetermination, conviction, promise (48:158), 'almost' certainty (11:296), often connected to weather forecast:
   He's not going to hurt you.
   It's not going to snow any more.

6. future intention, plan (41:188) or strong wish (the speaker is 100% sure about the action); premeditated future actions based on certain preparations:
   ⑬ *I am going to buy that house.*
   (I have already talked to the agent and the bank manager.)
   Are you going to finish your meal?
   Is he going to be a lawyer?
- this use comes close to future arrangements:
  ② *The Does are seeing the general next Monday.*
- an interesting observation is that less sure plans are ⑬ (6:77), while more sure, arranged plans are ②.

[2] If it is possible to formulate 'impersonal' statements.

7. giving orders or commands referring to near-future events:
   Now you are going to tell where you were last night. (whether you like it or not)

8. refuse (often emphatic) to do something or disobeying orders (41:189), which may be considered a "stylistic alternative" to the imperative mood (48:158); yet, its use is rare in negative (30:146):
   Jane is not going to do that.
   I'm certainly not going to wash your socks!
   I'm not gonna lie to you.

9. if ⑬ is combined with *have to*, it may express regrettable future actions (16:336), or we have often encountered it in films:
   I'm gonna have to tell you about it.
   You're gonna have to tell me the truth. Now!

10. the 'past' form is mostly associated with unfulfilled events or intentions, but the intention may even have turned to action (30:156), exemplified in the second and third sentence:
    Jane was going to arrive on Sunday. (but she didn't)
    The colonel thought that John was not going to survive the mission. (but he did)
    We were going to arrive here tomorrow, but we've made it today.
- this use is also referred to as "past prospective", being connected to events "intended to occur in reality" (75:83); the second and third example also warn us that the speaker assesses the events subjectively, the way he or she 'understands', or perceives' previous evidence or knowledge connected to the deployed event (cf. 75:83).

While BE does not use *go* and *come* in this tense, the abbreviated form may contain these verbs in AE:

Jane's not gonna come.
John's not gonna go there again.

We have mentioned that it is questionable whether ⑬ is a modal construction or not, but the speaker's evidence or past knowledge may lead to **intention**, **certainty** (mostly for people) and **probability**, **inevitability** (of things), terms often connected to modal verbs.

In fact, there are sources which clearly discuss ⑬ as a modal construction (22:338), similarly to *will*. While *will* (or *shall*) is connected to external circumstances, [aiw] *going to* is typically used when the speaker looks forward and the event is "the **natural outcome of other events**" (75:82). The [aiw] *going to* form may be extended:

- the prospective and retrospective view may be combined (75:83):
  I've been going to marry her for ages.
- modal verbs may precede the structure:
  *John **must be going to sharpen** his knife before the combat.*
- *will* (modal / future auxiliary) may also precede it:
  ***I'll be going to pop** the question the next time I meet her.*

2.13.3. Going to Future and other tenses

2.13.3.1. Going to Future and Future Simple

Even if sometimes there is no clear difference in meaning between ⑬ and ⑨, we tend to think that these two tenses complete each other, detailed below:

1. evidence-based,[3] more sure future events tend to be expressed with ⑬; however, as predictions may be subjective, they may shift towards personal opinion, past experience, less sure, less evident, more remote events (Future Simple):
   ⑬ *Look! The colonel is going to slip on that banana skin!*
   ⑨ *Jane will take revenge.*

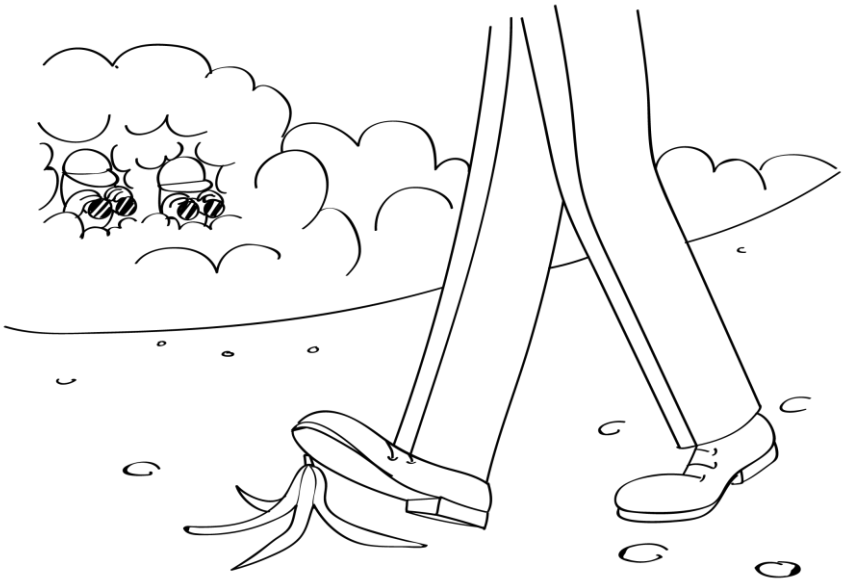

Illustration 26. The colonel is going to slip

- a further proof of personal choice is that certain verbs expressing uncertainty (*think, believe*) may be used with both tenses:
  ⑬ *I don't think she is going to get married soon.*
  ⑨ *I think she will like my present.*
- in a similar vein, we are warned that 'degree of certainty' does not help, as it "completely without foundation": native speakers could not range examples between the two extremes, as it depends on the speaker how to conceptualize the future event (75:139–140).

2. the speaker may express near future events or intention (especially taken at the moment of speech) with ⑬ versus distant future or opinion / assumption with ⑨:
   ⑬ *I'm gonna drink this beer now.*
   ⑨ *I hope Jane will take revenge one day.*
- however, one might have a feeling that certain future events are either near or distant, depending on the personal involvement; thus the choice of tense reflects the way the speaker approaches the event. Furthermore, in some cases ⑨ can also

[3] In other words, 'factual' versus 'non-factual' (beliefs, presuppositions, etc.).

be used for near future events ('on the spot' decisions), or ⑬ for more distant future:
⑨ *Which one do you prefer? I'll have the blue one, please.*
(quick reaction during conversation
⑬ *I have bought a duck. I'm going to roast it for my birthday.*
(intention, strong desire)

3. carefully planned decisions (premeditated intention, often obstacle / impediment implied) versus quick, unpremeditated ones (cf. 'on the spot'):
⑬ *John is going to hunt down all the enemy soldiers in a systematic order.*
(He's been brooding over it for a while.)
⑬ *When are you going to stop that?* (intention)
⑨ *Who's ringing? I don't know but I'll get the door.*
⑨ *When will you stop that?*
(open question without specific planning, 41:193)

- it is clear that serious preparation needs decisions made before the commitment (⑬), while in the 'heat' of speech different kind of decisions are made (⑨);

4. serious promise, future arrangement or emphasised intention versus less serious promise:
⑬ *I'm not going to do that again.*
⑨ *OK, I won't do that again, just leave me alone now.*

- knowing this, the difference is clear between the following sentences:
⑬ *I am going to leave you. What is your last wish?*
⑨ *I will kill you for these extensive grammar descriptions…*
⑨ *(Your book will be set ablaze.)*
- yet, ⑨ is used for determination:
⑨ *Whatever happens, I 'will help you. (You can count on me.)*

5. weather forecasts are typical with *going to* (based on evidence), but it is possible to express uncertainty about the weather (combined with an "air of authority", 30:143):
⑬ *(I think) It's not going to rain today.*
⑨ *I think it will rain tomorrow, so you should take an umbrella.*

- due to logical reasons, newspapers and news broadcasts favour ⑨ for formal announcements and weather forecasts (cf. 33:190), probably adding authority to statements.

6. in case of 'neutral' future events or when none of the above mentioned differences apply, both tenses may be used:
⑬ *The Does are going to leave at dawn. I'm not going to tell you how old I am.*
⑨ *The Does will leave at dawn. I won't tell you how old I am.*

- however, the negative forms differ in meaning:
⑬ *I'm not going to tell you how old I am. (I don't intend to tell you my age.)*
⑨ *I won't tell you how old I am.* (modal overtone: *I refuse to tell you my age.*)

7. *going to* is not normally associated with "temporal or conditional clauses" (13:234):
⑨ *Jane will call John if she is in trouble.*
⑨ *Jane will call John when she returns home.*

- in case their meanings overlap, ⑨ is more formal in style:[4]
  ⑨ *The briefing will begin at 0900 sharp.*
  ⑨ *Details about the next mission will be revealed at 1200.* (passive voice)

The difference between tenses ②, ⑨ and ⑬ is not about near or distant future, or about certainty, as the speaker has chosen a tense based on the decision type and how the speaker is attached to the future event (69:148). When ⑨ is used, *will* expresses the speaker's attitude at the moment of speaking, while ⑬ is more compelling based on previous evidence.

2.13.3.2. Going to Future and Present Continuous

The difference between ⑬ and ② is much subtler, as both tenses "relate the event in future time to something preceding now". While ⑬ usually derives from a set of previous events, actions or happenings constituting the basis of evidence for the future event, actions expressed by ② are typically connected to a single triggering event:

1. future intention (on previous experience) contrasted with plans, arrangements:[5]
   ⑬ *When are you going to help your mother?* (she is not likely to know about it)
   ② *When are you helping your mother?* (she probably knows about it)

2. [aiw] *going to* is typically subjective (37:630), used for premeditated intention (obstacles, impediments implied without any particular arrangement, decisions without arrangement, predictions); ② focuses on future plans and (personal, definite) arrangements:
   ⑬ *(Whatever it takes,) I am going to escape this prison cell tonight.*
   ② *Jane is meeting the President on Saturday.*
- both activities are considered to be sure: the prisoner's **intention** seems to be important (convinced about success despite obstacles), and information is offered about a particular future **arrangement** (previous planning needed).

3. quick decisions are considered to be intentions, associated ⑬; similarly, evidence-based predictions (e.g. weather forecast) belong here:
   ⑬ *Don't worry! It's going to get dark soon.*
- ⑬ and ② may alternate due to the speaker's subjective involvement:
  ⑬ *The Does are going to visit their in-laws next week.*
  ② *The Does are visiting their in-laws next week.*
- the overlap in meaning is further supported by their similar forms, noting that the auxiliaries in interrogative and negative forms coincide (*am, are* or *is*); *going* is either part of the construction (Going to Future) or weak verb in ②:
  ⑬ *Jane* ***is going to do*** *her weekly workout soon.*
  ② *Jane* ***is going to*** *the gym for her weekly workout.*

2.13.3.3. Going to Future and Future Continuous

As ② and ⑩ are similar in use (plans, arrangements, future extended but limited period taking up space in time), ⑬ may be compared to ⑩ as well:

⑩ *Will you be sleeping for long?* ("casual", "less confrontational, 67:148)
⑬ *Are you going to sleep for long? (Do you intend to sleep for long?)*

[4] Cf. previously arranged future events, cf. 35:22, 37:631.
[5] Cf. 4:345, 75:143.

2.14. Other Ways of Expressing Future

Certain constructions with *be* are regarded as semi-auxiliaries, semi-modals (36:143, 11:392) or even "quasi-auxiliary constructions" (36:217), so their categorisation may be puzzling. However, quite a number of grammar books[1] discuss them connected to future. It seems to be a logical choice, as their meaning is strongly connected to future time.

Constructions with *be* form a rather extensive list (cf. 36:143):

be to	*be going to*	***be on the verge of***
be about to	*be likely to*	*be supposed to*
be apt to	*be meant to*	*be willing to*
be bound to	*be obliged to*	
be due to	***be on the point of***	

Table 51. Future constructions with *be*

However, as correctly observed (30:164), there are no forms with *be*, thus we have introduced [aiw] instead of *be*, covering certain forms of *be*: ***a**m*, ***a**re*, ***i**s*, ***w**as*, and ***w**ere*.

As we are primarily interested in the expressions in bold (as the *going to* construction has already been dealt with in 2.13.), the following sections will discuss possible meanings of these expressions connected to future.

Their uses are rather limited, being connected to specific future events (projected to happen in the future formulated in the past or present), sometimes expressing a retrospect to what may or may not have taken place.

2.14.1. [aiw] *to* + I.

This structure may be classified as both a future and a modal construction. As we do not feel compelled to decide where to list it primarily, we discuss its meanings focusing on its future relevance, while its modal senses are discussed in 7.3.13.

It is followed by either the I. verb form or *have* + III. verb form (*was / were to have met*) referring to the following cases connected to the future:

1. planned or arranged (near-) future events,[2] which are typically official or formal; plans may be established earlier, typically by somebody else (11:296–297), and it should be acting "according to" (8:221, 99:57), sometimes as 'written in advance'; it may be associated with fate, destiny, requirement, duty to be fulfilled (36:218), public duty (40:183) or it may express instructions:
   The governor is to give a speech at 7 p.m.
   I am to start the briefing at 8 o'clock sharp.
   The Does are to leave for Neverland. (as the general ordered / arranged)

- the rareness of the structure may be associated with its reference to a future event viewed as factual, which is rather rare (cf. 75:144); it typically refers to a particular future event (75:144), compared to Present Simple, which is repeated (timetable):
  Hurry up, the ship is to leave any moment. (a particular departure)
  The ship leaves at 10 a.m. (every day)

[1] 37:636, 44:128, 35:30, 36:217.
[2] 30:165–166, 10:58, 65:201, 71:76, 72:15.

- the construction is highly favoured by the press (4:215), containing few characters, also considering that headlines tend to omit the verb (75:145):
  (The) Colonel (is) to appear in court tomorrow.
- past forms express plans made in the past which may or may not have fulfilled (retrospect view, as a possible 'Future-in-the-Past' construction, 30:165):
  She was to be appointed the leader of the group.
- in case the event has not taken place, the perfect variant is more suitable:
  She was to have been appointed the leader of the group. (but she wasn't)

2. intentions (2:155) may also be expressed with this construction:
   We are to file the report not later than Tuesday.

3. pre-destined future[3] or "fated to happen":
   They are never to return from Neverland.
   John was to face some thugs soon.

4. preconditions (expressed by a conditional sentence) in order to happen something else or 'contingent' future (cf. *should* in 7.3.19); the *if* part may turn true based on the main clause (45:80):
   If you are to enter that country, you must have a visa.
   If the Does are to survive this, they will need assistance from above.
   If Jane is to file a report on the events, it's not going to be pleasant for the government.

5. the interrogative form is more like daydreaming:
   If you were to win the lottery, how would you react? (unlikely hypothesis)
   Were you to meet a ghost, what would you do? (emphasised unlikely hypothesis)
- conditional sentences or hypothetical constructions may have both future and modal interpretations:
  Let's suppose that you will / should see a ghost.

A possible alternative construction is [aiw] *meant to*:

The LSAT is meant to be difficult to select the best candidates.
The aid was meant to help people in real need. (possible / hidden dissatisfaction)

2.14.2. [aiw] *about to* + I.

This construction (more formal than *going to*, 11:297) is followed by an infinitive. Although it may have modal meanings, it is predominantly associated with (near) future, thus we discuss it in this section. It may express the following:

1. immediate future actions or plans as it is associated with "immanent fulfilment"[4] or "the next moment" (32:8); the action may be intended or expected to happen (very or fairly) soon,[5] and there is usually "evidence to happen" (44:128), as things "are arranged or destined to happen very soon" (37:671):
   The plane is about to land any minute.
   I've never done any cooking and I'm not about to start now.
   Don't worry, we're about to leave (any minute).

[3] 29:89–90 or 41:80.
[4] 29:89–90, 3:34, 7:119, 8:163.
[5] 65:201, 71:76, 72:151.

- the past form sounds politer:
  Jane, were you about to leave?
- a more emphasised version contains *just*:
  We're just about to leave. (emphasised immediateness)
  Stop it, she's just about to cry! (the first tear drops might be visible)
- similar expressions are [aiw] *going to* (2.13.) or [aiw] *on the point of* (2.14.5.):
  Stop it, she's going to cry!
  Stop it, she's on the point of crying!

2. the negative form may express unwillingness (41:3):
   John is not about to quit.

3. it is possible to use it for past (story-telling):
   Jane remembered that John was about to say something important.
   John was just about to confess his love when eight thugs appeared from the jungle.

2.14.3. [aiw] *bound to* + I.

This structure is considered a semi-auxiliary[6] or a "non-modal" expression (32:67) by some sources, although its meaning is primarily associated with a prediction based on 'certainty' (modal concept).

At this stage we treat it as a lexical item with five equally valid forms: *am bound to, are bound to, is bound to, was bound to, were bound to*, which are related to the future, while its modal references are discussed in a separate section (7.3.14.):

Jane and John are bound to appear at the extraction point.

The expression is also a "superficially passive" construction (36:144), having no active equivalent, and it cannot be used in imperative constructions, although its meaning is similar to *be sure to* + I. or *be certain* + I. (44:129):

Be sure to repair the leaking roof.
Be certain to meet me at the station.

The [aiw] *bound to* structure may sound like an elliptical sentence, further supported by *if*-clauses (cf. Chapter 5, especially *unless*) expressing less confidence in the realisation of the future event:

The company is bound to close its doors (unless it obtains a government subsidy).
The colonel is bound to retire (unless he becomes the head of the CIA).
The colonel is bound to retire if the mission turns to failure.

In these cases, the confidence in a particular future event may also express certain obligation (33:30), leading to its modal interpretations:

Apple is bound to offer top quality products.
Apple is bound to offer top quality products if consumer loyalty is important.
I'm bound to say that your homework does not live up to expectations.

The last example foreshadows failure, connected to the next section:

The delivery is bound to be late although it's due in 5 minutes.

Further discussion of the structure is connected to its modal meanings (cf. 7.3.14.).

[6] Cf. 36:144, 217–218.

2.14.4. [aiw] *due to* + I.

This construction is typically used with timetables or actions "scheduled to happen at a given time"[7] and itineraries, usually with a time or date (44:128); "arrangements that are to take place at a fixed time" (47:68) or "actions or events which are expected to happen usually fairly soon" (72:151):

The train is due to arrive at 9.30.
Constructions are due to start on 1st March.
Jane and John Doe's mission is due to start in a fortnight.
The Does are due to return soon.

The past form refers to unfulfilled events, combined with (usually negative) emotions, such as worry, anxiety, impatience, etc.:

The plane was to land at 5:55. (What could have happened?)

Although it is considered a stock phrase, the *to* particle may be omitted:

The flight is due at 6.15.

2.14.5. [aiw] *on the point / verge of* + I.-ing

Both constructions express "very immediate future" (47:68) or "the next moment" (32:8), although there are more formal options with certain adjectives (*forthcoming, imminent, impending*). However, their meaning is similar to [aiw] *about to*, "but is a shade more immediate" (33:118):

Lay low! They are on the point of giving up the search for us.
The mission is on the verge of collapse.
The total defeat of the guerrillas is imminent. (more formal)

[7] 65:201, 71:76.

2.15. Tenses and modal verbs for future

While describing present and past tenses we also mentioned particular cases when they can refer to events associated with future time, such as plans, arrangements, intentions, or predictions envisaged in the past or present time, exemplified in the following sections.

2.15.1. Present Simple for Future

We have already discussed ① Present Simple (cf. 2.1.) in details, so we only have to reiterate its future possibilities.

I. In main clauses it can express:

1. future plans or events considered certainty:
   We go to see the carnival after lunch.
2. schedules, timetables, programmes, itineraries (3:93–95):
   The train arrives at Platform 2.
3. asking for or giving instructions (41:191):
   What do we do now?
4. normal course of events:
   We expect heavy rains in May.

II. In sub-clauses it may refer to:

1. future possibilities:
   ***When** we **are** ready, we head for the station to catch the earliest train to Berlin.*
2. present or future conditions:
   *I will help you **if** you **want** me to.*

As temporal and conditional sub-clauses often overlap, there are many time adverbials introducing sub-clauses referring to future: *after, as, before, if, in case, till, until, when, while*, etc.

2.15.2. Present Continuous for Future

Present Continuous (cf. 2.2.2.) has also been described as suitable for future:

1. expressing personal future arrangements, intentions and plans; however, a future time indicator is needed to enable disambiguation between present and future meanings, cf. 3:93–95):
   I am planning to drop by at around five.
2. expressing refusal:
   Jane is not willing to follow orders any more.

However, we should remember that it is not a different Present Continuous specifically 'designed' for future, but its core meanings are associated with the future: taking up space in time, it refers to temporary, limited periods now (cf. 75:142), which extends into the future or (in the present) we have in mind events to carry out in the future.

On comparing the two present tenses, we can draw the conclusion that ① is more official with little personal involvement ('somebody else is the boss'), while ② is more typical for personal arrangements.

2.15.3. Past Tenses for Future

Past Continuous (cf. 2.6.2.) can express past arrangements of 'near' future:

⑥ *She did that because she was seeing him the next day.*

However, other past tenses may also refer to the future (cf. the term Future-in-the Past, leading to reported speech):

WOULD

*Jane promised that she **would** carry out her task in due time.*

⑤ + ⑤ + WOULD + ⑦ (Past Simple and Past Perfect Simple)

*She also **told** me that she **left** for Neverland shortly and she **would** contact me as soon as she **had reached** the first check-point.*

Before reaching the conclusion that all tenses and expressions are suitable for future, we should appease the kind reader that Past Tenses typically refer to future when reported speech is involved:

*She **told** me that she **started** for Paris in a week's time.*
*He **said** he **would** post the letter as soon as he **had written** it.*

Although **reported speech** (indirect speech) constitutes an impressive chapter in grammar books, there are views that these rules are "not always necessary"[1] if the primary semantic characteristics are considered, combined with the concept of remoteness.

2.15.4. Modal verbs for future

Although it seems that the possibilities to express 'future' are exhausted, we need to mention the importance of modal verbs (see Chapter 7) in this respect. As they have one form, their meaning may be associated with past, present and future time alike:

*You **may** pay me a visit.* (anytime from this point on)
*You **must** talk to the Does.* (as soon as possible)
*There **might** be a new mission for the Does.* (soon, next week)
***Can** you make it tomorrow?*
*She hoped she **could** be here in time.*
*John knew he **should** bring his knife sharpened.*

[1] 41:573, 75:71–72.

2.16. Summary of Tenses

Certain 'building blocks' are necessary in order to illustrate the tenses on a timeline. The most important part of a timeline is *now*, where the speaker is typically situated and describes the events or actions.

Now dissects the timeline and serves as the reference point for *then – before now* and *then – after now*:

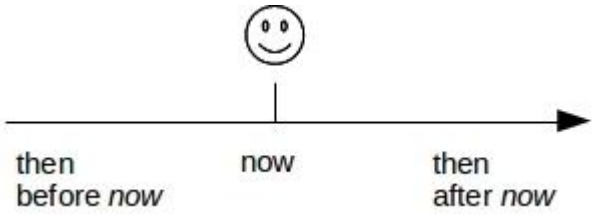

Figure 1. Timeline for tenses

Further important building blocks are:

1. a **point** marks the location of the event on the timeline;
2. a **period** is used for extended events;
3. *while* is used for parallel periods or a period combined with a point;
4. a **special period** is introduced by *for* (towards the past) or *since* (towards the future) extending until a block;
5. a **block** marks the end of an event;
6. a **projection** refers to **prospective** events that can go beyond blocks (unlimited period).

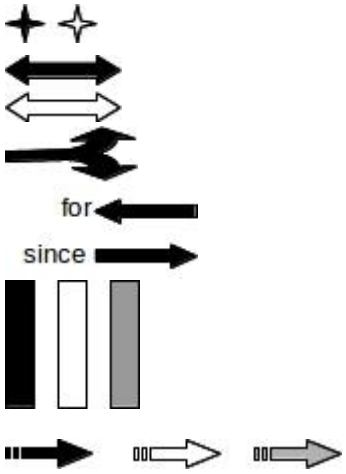

Figure 2. Building blocks for tenses

It is also important to note that:

- **black** signals events consumed in the past;
- **white** signals possible events in the future;
- **grey** signals events starting in the past directed towards the present / future.

A further important note is that the illustration of tenses focuses on their central uses; less typical ones may only be described and exemplified with sentences (e.g. Present Perfect Continuous without *for* / *since*).

① **Present Simple** is basically timeless; although it refers to repeated actions, habits, it also expresses universal truths, thus any point or period on a timeline marked for this tense is wrong, unless for a specific sentence. Yet we can offer the timeline itself, where actual sentences in Present Simple may be marked (e.g. timetables) anywhere:

Jane does 20 push-ups every morning.
We leave at dawn.
You can add some sugar to it.

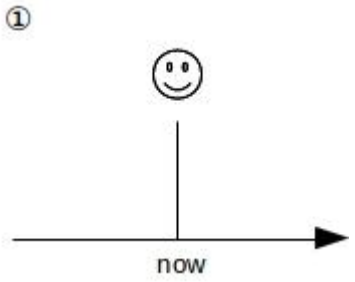

Figure 3. Present Simple

② **Present Continuous** refers to a subjective point in now (objectively it is very difficult to find events happening only at a certain point; even dropping a vase takes up time), which typically extended in time; the white period refers to future arrangements:

I'm thinking.
What are you doing?
I'm thinking about next week's project.

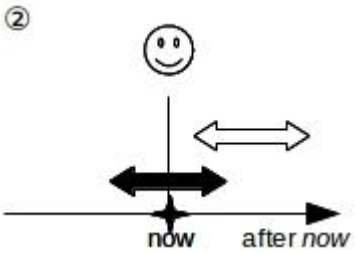

Figure 4. Present Continuous

③ **Present Perfect Simple** describes past events as results in the present (up to now); optionally, *for* (the starting point is *now*) and *since* (the starting point is clarified in the past) may refer to the extent in time, thus the illustration is the following:

I have never drunk tequila.
Mr. S.'s sister has eaten all the cake.
I haven't seen you for ages.
John has lost contact with HQ since 5 a.m.

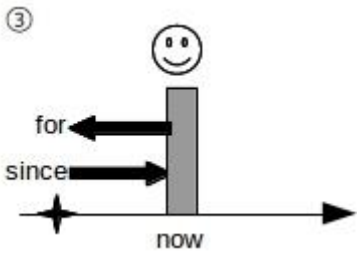

Figure 5. Present Perfect Simple

④ **Present Perfect Continuous** refers to partial results, as it is still going on at the moment of speaking (although it started in the past it is prospective concerning future time):

They have been quarrelling since they got married.
The Does have been fighting as professional soldiers for a long time.

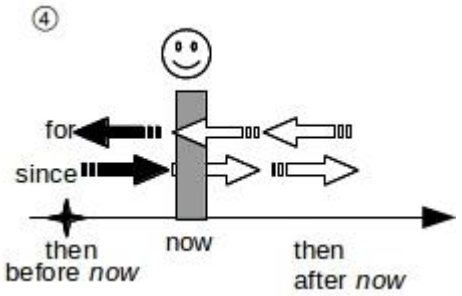

Figure 6. Present Perfect Continuous

⑤ **Past Simple** is the tense of *when* in the past time, either explicitly or implicitly. Although we illustrate it with a single point-like event *before now*, it may be a series of events (e.g. story-telling):

The colonel sent a message to the Does at 0400.
They didn't make it in time.

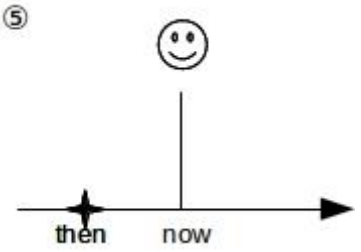

Figure 7. Past Simple

⑥ Past Continuous is used when events are extended in a past time and we know 'exactly' when by mentioning the time, period; as it may be used for two simultaneous actions, *while* may easily identify this tense in the past:

I couldn't answer the phone; I was sleeping then.
While Jane was gathering intel on the thugs John was sharpening his knife.

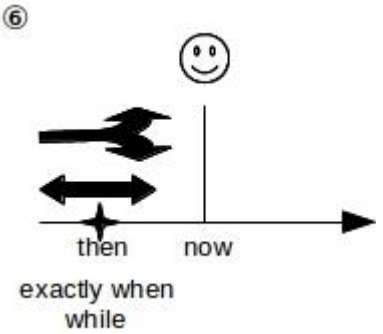

Figure 8. Past Continuous

⑦ **Past Perfect Simple** refers to an event before another event in the past; hence it is typically followed by a Past Simple event, which constitutes the block beyond which Past Perfect Simple does not extend:

By the time Mr. S. arrived home, his sister had eaten all the cake.
I hadn't seen anything like that before.
(implied Past Simple)
Jane had waited for the backup for three hours when she decided to open fire.

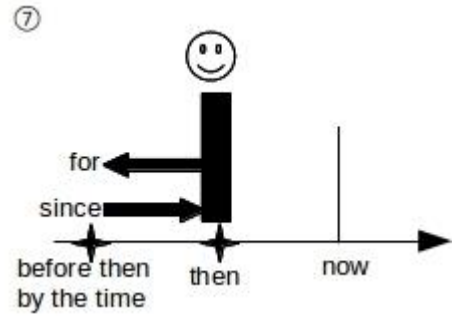

Figure 9. Past Perfect Simple

⑧ **Past Perfect Continuous** expresses events started in the distant past (past before another past), which typically extend over the other past action (prospective when reaching *then*), signalled by *for* or *since*:

John had been watching the movie for an hour when Jane joined him.

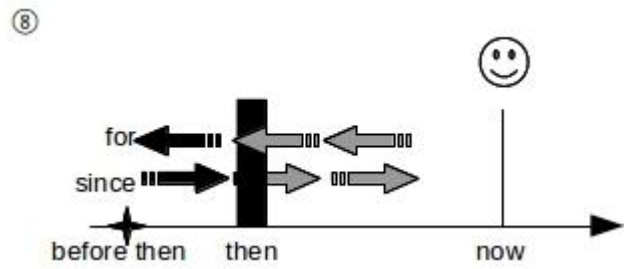

Figure 10. Past Perfect Continuous

Although linguists agree that there are no grammatical future tenses, language users still use various forms referred to as **future** tenses; the following events in the future time are marked in white, signalling that they are all basically projected into the future from the present, except for one case. However, these 'tenses' making use of *will*, are all **non-factual**, expressing hopes, wishes, possibilities, probabilities or certainties deriving from the present or past evidence, knowledge, habits, etc.

⑨ **Future Simple** is illustrated as an event to happen **any time after now**, the illustration contains a white point in the future, without being able to visualize non-certainty (hope, promise, etc.):

She won't be back until lunch.
Will he ever grow up?
I will buy an electric car sometime in the future.

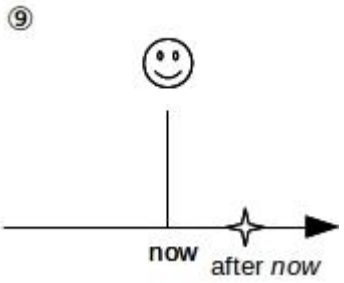

Figure 11. Future Simple

⑩ **Future Continuous** is a projected Present Continuous, as it covers future events at a particular point in the future or extended future events:

We'll be watching the tournament at weekend.
Don't bother to come on Monday. I'll be fishing.

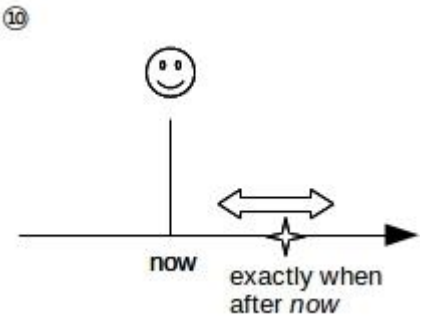

Figure 12. Future Continuous

⑪ **Future Perfect Simple** offers a result by or before a definite future *then (after now)* point, resembling much Present Perfect Simple (result in the present point, *now*) or Past Perfect Simple (result in a past *then* point):

By the time Mr. S. arrives home, his sister will have eaten all the cake.
We won't have heard any news until 5 p.m., I'm afraid.

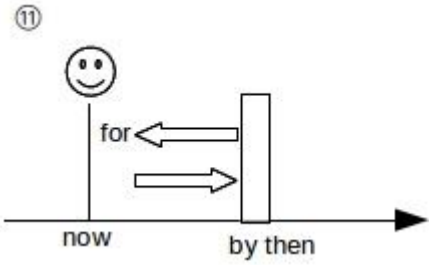

Figure 13. Future Perfect Simple

⑫ **Future Perfect Continuous** – although used extremely rarely as it can be easily replaced by Present Perfect Continuous –, may refer to events that may have already started or will start after 'the announcement', and projected into the future, at which point (*then, after now*) the length of the activity is specified (usually a 'round' one), which will nevertheless continue:

By 2020 I will have been killing myself with these stupid examples for 25 years.

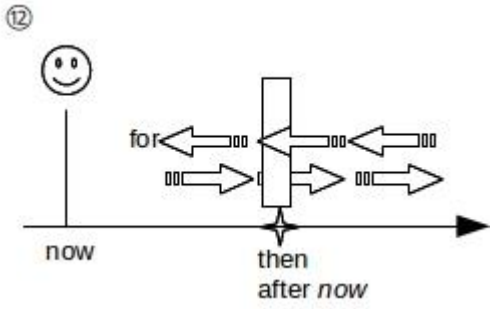

Figure 14. Future Perfect Continuous

⑬ **Going to Future,** the last tense to discuss, is in fact a construction which is very diversified in use, having projections from past, present and future, referring to both near-

and distant future, combined with the speaker's intention; being a non-modal construction, tense ⑬ comes very close to a 'factual' future, if it is possible to say anything like that based on evidence (as it may be subjectively interpreted):

a. *I'm not going to finish it in time.*
b. *We were going to tell you about it (later).*
c. *He'll be going to marry her when they return from the mission.*

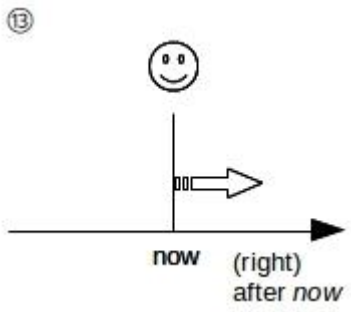

Figure 15. Going to Future

Naturally, further possibilities to illustrate tenses exist, and the justification for them is to enhance their understanding and how they relate to each other. In this respect it is worth comparing the use and illustration of various tenses, such as:

- ①, ⑤ and ⑨;
- ②, ⑥ and ⑩;
- ③, ⑦ and ⑪;
- ④, ⑧ and ⑫;
- ①, ②, ⑨ and ⑬;
- ② & ④; ⑥ & ⑧, ⑩ & ⑫;
- ⑥ & ⑤, ⑦ & ⑤, ⑧ & ⑤.

By comparing tenses in a systematic approach, we can observe that "pure **factuality**" (75:53) is only associated with Present Simple and Past Simple (undivided, unitary events), while all the others offer certain **subjective** interpretations of events.

The chapter also signals the importance of time indicators when constructing tenses: a n intermediate or advanced user must now the importance of adverbs such as *every, now, when, recently, while, for, since, before, next, at this time,* etc., which are not automatic indicators of one single tense, but are rather context-dependent.

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3. PASSIVE VOICE

3.1. Introduction – definition

Voice may be best understood with terms used in **syntax**, as voice reflects the relationship between the **subject**, **predicate** and **object**. Voice may be **active** (the subject performs an action) or **passive** (the object suffers by an action). Grammar books may also mention reflexive voice (23:386), when the action refers back to the subject; this is typical for reflexive verbs (cf. Chapter 1), knowing that the subject is also affected:

*Jane has never considered **herself** more prepared for the mission.*

Even if Passive Voice is usually described as derived from Active Voice (cf. the tenses described in Chapter 2), when a form of *be* is inserted in the active construction, passive voice has its own functions, considered to be 'harsher' and more distancing (cf. 2.14.1.). Yet, it is true that the Active Voice is preferred in speech and in formal writing over passive voice, even if it contains a dummy subject.

The importance of Passive Voice (PV) relies in the fact that it helps shifting the focus from the doer of the action in Active Voice (AV). There may be a number of reasons to do that (see section 4.3. below), and the grammatical changes affect the entire sentence construction.

Although new information is not at the very beginning of the sentence (cf. typical English word order), it is felt necessary in certain cases to change standard word order (fronting or shifting information to the end).

In order to be effective, once again we need to know certain terms typically used in syntax, such as Subject (S, logical subject, grammatical subject), Predicate (P, expressed by a verb phrase) and Object (O, which becomes the 'grammatical' subject of PV). More than that, semantic terms expressing thematic relations are also necessary, such as **agent** (deliberate 'doer'), **patient** ('sufferer') or **recipient** ('to' somebody).

While AV sentences start with a subject performing an action, PV also starts with a subject upon who / which an action is exerted. This shift results in "less prominence to the agent" (37:890). Grammar books often state that PV is only possible if the verb is transitive (taking an object), but 100% true rules hardly exist, triggering certain issues worth considering:

- not all transitive verbs may be used in Passive Voice (*like, resemble*);
- intransitive verbs followed by prepositions may have become passive (*frown upon*);
- the obligation of an agent (leading to issues regarding reflexive cases or ergative verbs);
- the obligation of a different agent (leading to issues of passive structures without identifiable agent due to verb meaning (*take interest in something*);
- difference between formal passive voice and causative constructions;
- passive voice deriving from meaning (inherent passive: *frown*);
- the issue of double passive:
  This is expected to be understood by everybody.
- (il)logical shifts in meaning between AV and PV (e.g. modal verbs);

- alternatives to passive auxiliary *be* (*get*), causative auxiliary have (*get, make, force*).

When describing the English tense system (Chapter 2) we mostly used examples in AV, and whenever a passive construction was used, it was specified. Although we have found a source stating that "[s]tructurally the passive is simple" because all forms contain a form of *be* followed by the III. form of the verb (75:131), practice demonstrates that certain PV forms (e.g. the continuous ones) are rather troublesome for language learners, even if native speakers have little problem with that.

It is a fact that PV constructions are more 'complicated', containing an extra auxiliary verb (*be*). In the following we present the formation rules of PV, starting from 'standard' AV constructions and acknowledging that 'standard' PV is made up of a subject followed by a transitive verb in passive form (headed by a form of be), and the agent is 'traceable', even if not present in the sentence.

3.2. Formation rules of Passive Voice

3.2.1. Tenses in Passive Voice

A possible logical approach Passive Voice is to start from the tenses of Active Voice, focusing on grammatical changes within the construction, leading to possible different meanings. Hence we can formulate the following 'rules':

0. although – as always – there are exceptions,[1] the general prerequisite for PV is to have a transitive verb in AV, knowing that "most verbs with an object (transitive verbs) can be made passive" (32:33).
- transitive verbs are described in section 1.5.5., but the main idea is that they are followed by at least one object (*meet Jane*), answering the question: *Who(m)?* or *What?* Thus *meet* is a transitive verb, while *go* is not.[2]

1. the object of AV becomes the subject of PV:
   *The colonel meets **Jane** regularly.*
   Jane …
- logically, the initial active subject of the AV becomes the passive agent of PV, even though this is hardly mentioned.

2. if the AV sentence contains auxiliary verb(s), they are preserved (cf. PV does not change the 'original' tense, it only modifies the 'perspective'); thus we have the following options:

a) if there is no auxiliary verb in AV (affirmative forms of Present Simple or Past Simple), nothing is done, so we can move to Rule 3:
   The colonel meets Jane regularly.
   Jane …

[1] PV is not possible when the direct object of the AV is a reciprocal or reflexive pronoun (*each other, myself*, etc.: *John and Jane always help each other*.) or a non-finite clause (infinitive or *-ing* clause: *John started firing / to fire.*), cf. http://folk.uio.no/hhasselg/grammar/Week11_word_order.htm, 18. 02. 2017.

[2] A rather eloquent guide to (in)transitive verbs is the following: "A good dictionary will tell you whether verbs are transitive or intransitive." (35:58)

b) if there is one auxiliary verb, we 'copy' it, without the need to make it agree with the new subject (as the subject in AV and PV take the same form of the auxiliary verb):
*The colonel **is** meeting Jane tomorrow.*
*Jane **is** ...*

c) if there is one auxiliary verb, we 'copy' and change / adapt it, due the different subject in person (first, second, third) and / or number (singular or plural):
The girls are meeting Jane at the party.
*Jane **is** ...*

d) if there are two auxiliary verbs, both of them are copied, knowing that no agreement check is necessary; whenever we have two auxiliary verbs in PV, the first one is actually a modal verb, which has a single form for all persons and numbers:[3]
*The girls **will have** solved the problem by the time Jane arrives at / to their place.*
*The problem **will have**…*

3. this rule is vital for PV, as the previously detailed auxiliaries are completed with / followed by the auxiliary *be*, which always takes the form of the weak verb (that carries the meaning); any weak verb can have the following forms, **instead** of which we **insert** the passive auxiliary *be*:

I.	*see, sees*	*be, am, are, is*
II.	*saw*	*was, were*
III.	*seen*	*been*
-ing	*seeing*	*being*

Table 52. Forms of the passive auxiliary *be*

*The colonel **saw** Jane yesterday.*
*Jane **was** …*
*The colonel is **seeing** Jane tomorrow.*
*Jane is **being** …*

4. the last rule is that the **passive auxiliary** *be* is **always** followed by the weak verb of AV in III. (irregular verbs) or *-ed* (regular verbs) form:
*The colonel **meets** Jane regularly.*
*Jane is **met** regularly.*
*The colonel is **meeting** Jane tomorrow.*
*Jane is being **met** tomorrow.*
*The girls will have **solved** the problem by the time Jane arrives at / to their place.*
*The problem will have been **solved** by the time Jane arrives at / to their place.*

For the time being, the only piece of good news is that not all AV tenses have PV forms; certain grammar books say that even if they may be constructed, they are "not used", although they are 'theoretically' possible. These tenses are:

Present Perfect Continuous
Past Perfect Continuous
Future Continuous

[3] Even if it may happen that there are AV tenses with two non-modal auxiliaries, they are not used in PV (4 continuous tenses).

Future Perfect Continuous

To put it simply, tenses ④, ⑧, ⑩ and ⑫ have no PV forms. Yet there are 9 more tenses with possible PV constructions, exemplified step by step in the following sections; rule 0 is common for all (we deal with a transitive verb), thus it is not specified separately.

3.2.1.1. Present Tenses in Passive Voice

AV	Processing rules	PV
① *Pigs eat bran in May.*	1. object first (2.) skipped as no auxiliary 3. *be* instead weak verb in I. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran ø* *Bran is* *Bran is eaten* *Bran is eaten in May.*
② *Pigs are eating bran now.*	1. object first 2. auxiliary copied & adapted 3. *be* instead weak in *-ing* 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran ~~are~~ is* *Bran is being* *Bran is being eaten* *Bran is being eaten now.*
③ *Pigs have eaten bran.*	1. object first 2. auxiliary copied & adapted 3. *be* instead weak in III. 4. weak verb in III.	*Bran* *Bran ~~have~~ has* *Bran has been* *Bran has been eaten* *Bran has been eaten.*

Table 53. Present Tenses in PV

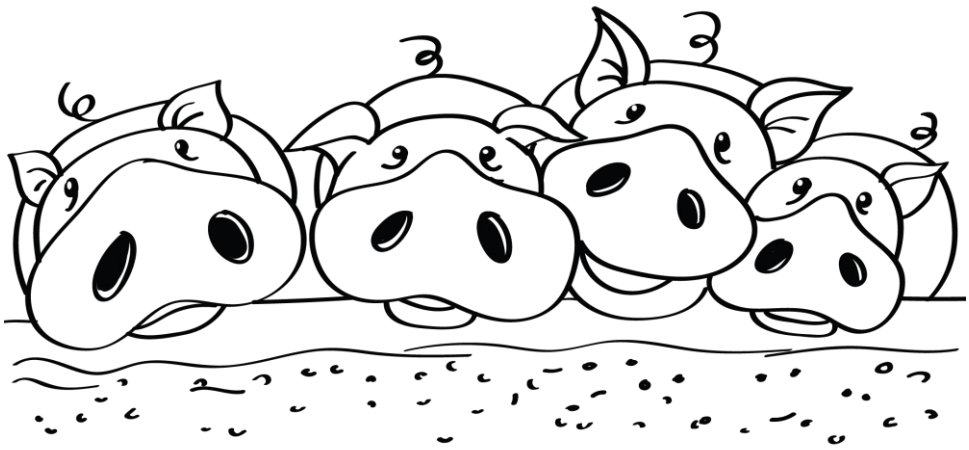

Illustration 27. Pigs are eating bran

3.2.1.2. Past Tenses in Passive Voice

AV	Processing rules	PV
⑤ *Pigs ate bran in May.*	1. object first (2.) skipped as no auxiliary 3. *be* instead weak verb in II. 4. weak verb in III.	*Bran ø* *Bran was* *Bran was eaten* *Bran was eaten in May.*

AV	Processing rules	PV
	+ adverbial	
⑥ *Pigs were eating bran at 5 a.m.*	1. object first 2. auxiliary copied & adapted 3. be instead weak in *-ing* 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran ~~were~~ was* *Bran was being* *Bran was being eaten* *Bran was being eaten at 5 a.m.*
⑦ *Pigs had eaten bran before lying down.*	1. object first 2. auxiliary copied 3. be instead weak in III. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran had* *Bran had been* *Bran had been eaten* *Bran had been eaten before...*
Pigs were going to eat bran when the roof collapsed.	1. object first 2. 'auxiliary' copied & adapted 3. be instead weak verb in I. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran was going to* *Bran was going to be* *Bran was going to be eaten* *Bran was going to be eaten when the roof collapsed.*

Table 54. Past Tenses in PV

3.2.1.3. Future Tenses in Passive Voice

AV	Processing rules	PV
⑨ *Pigs will eat bran in May.*	1. object first 2. auxiliary copied 3. *be* instead weak verb in I. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran will* *Bran will be* *Bran will be eaten* *Bran will be eaten in May.*
⑪ *Pigs will have eaten bran by December.*	1. object first 2. auxiliaries copied 3. *be* instead weak in III. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran will have* *Bran will have been* *Bran will have been eaten* *Bran will have been eaten by December.*
⑬ *Pigs are going to eat bran soon.*	1. object first 2. 'aux.' copied & adapted 3. *be* instead weak verb in I. 4. weak verb in III. + adverbial	*Bran* *Bran ~~are~~ is going to* *Bran is going to be* *Bran is going to be eaten* *Bran is going to be eaten soon.*

Table 55. Future Tenses in PV

Those who would like a 'shortcut' to PV, the 'simplified version' is the following:

	Subject	Auxiliary	Weak verb		Object
AV	***Pigs***	***have***	***eaten***		***bran.***
(0. transitive verb)	(Rule 1.)	(Rule 2.)	(Rule 3.)	(Rule 4.)	
PV	***Bran***	***(~~have~~) has***	***been***	***eaten.***	

Table 56. AV–PV change with 4 rules

There are four rules:

1. Object becomes Subject;

2. If AV contains auxiliaries, copy it / them (adapt if necessary);
3. Insert *be* in the AV form of the weak verb;
4. This is followed by the weak verb always in III.

- remark: tenses ④, ⑧, ⑩, ⑫ are not used in PV.

After having explained and exemplified how we change sentences form AV PV, it is hopefully more clear why the construction is called passive: the logical subject 'does' something to its object, who or which must 'suffer passively' this interaction due to various reasons (indifference, lack or incapacity of resistance, etc.). However, we must understand that this is mainly a grammatical construction, so the meaning of the PV sentence must be considered; thus it may be difficult to identify the subject of PV as a 'sufferer' or a 'passive' grammatical subject (unless meta-linguistically):

John saw Jane yesterday.
Jane was seen yesterday.
(Jane did not suffer because of this, unless she had desired not to be seen.)

John helped Jane yesterday.
Jane was helped yesterday.
(Verb meaning is contrary to the concept of 'suffer'.)

The 'doer' or 'agent' of the action may be added to the end of PV sentences, although it rarely happens. Most typically, by precedes the logical subject (the agent), but the instrumental use of PV (cf. 26:30) offers further possibilities (*with, in, of, from*):

*John's knife was taken **by** Jane.*
*The food can was opened (**by** John) **with** that knife.*
*The letter has been written **in** ink.*
*The insurgents will be beheaded **with** a 19th century guillotine.*
*The air is filled **with** joy.*
*The mountains are covered **in / with** snow.*

It is interesting to note that certain verbs in passive (*cram, crowd, fill, pack*) followed by *with* cannot be considered 'instrumental' as are 'combined' with human beings:

*I remember well when the New York Public Library was **crammed with** people in the movie The Day After Tomorrow.*

It has been observed that recognizable things are used with *of*, while non-recognizable with *from* (7:175):

*Cheap things are made **of** plastic.* (visually recognizable)
*Bread is a staple food produced **from** flour, non-wheat cereals and water.*
(non-recognizable ingredients)

While forming Passive Voice questions without the agent is similar to Active Voice questions (auxiliary comes first), the agent is referred to with the help of an interrogative pronoun (3:524):

Have the pigs eaten bran? (I don't care who gave them food.)
Who was Jane persuaded by? (Give me a name!)
By whom was Jane persuaded? (formal reference to an agent)

The agent is typically omitted when it belongs to the following categories (13:375):

- personal pronouns: *you, he, she, it, they*;

- indefinite pronouns: *everybody, everyone, nobody, no one, somebody, someone*;
- certain nouns with generic meaning ("represented by a large group of different individuals", 15:117) to avoid highly impersonal statements:[4] *a man, a girl, people*.

The reason for omitting the doer may be explained by the fact that it is often irrelevant, while the introductory preposition (*by*) may captures our attention 'too much', shifting away from the action.

3.2.2. Infinitive, Gerund and Participle in Passive Voice

Infinitive Ⓘ, Gerund Ⓖ and Participle Ⓟ constructions (non-finite forms) are dealt with as categories in-between verbs and nouns and have the following forms associated with Active and Passive Voice:

	AV	**PV (Present)**	**PV (Perfect)**
Ⓘ	*read*	*be read*	*have been read*
Ⓖ / Ⓟ	*reading*	*being read*	*having been read*

Table 57. Non-finite forms in AV & PV

3.2.2.1. Simple, Perfect and Continuous Infinitive

A few remarks are necessary regarding various infinitive forms:

1. verbs of perception (*hear, see, watch*) and *help, let, make* are followed by the '**bare' infinitive** in AV; however, they are followed by the 'full' infinitive in PV (29:841):
   The colonel made John clear up the mess.
   *John was made **to** clear up the mess.*
   John saw Jane come home.
   *Jane was seen **to** come home.*
   (the entire 'event')
   Jane was seen coming home.
   ('snapshot' while coming home)
   - there are typical negative infinitive PV expressions:
     *There's nothing **to** be done now.*
     *Jane is nowhere **to** be found.*
     *John is not **to** be blamed for this.*
   - a notable exception is *let* (33:268):
     The thugs let Jane go.
     Jane was let go.
   - however, *allow* and *permit* may replace *let* in PV:[5]
     *The colonel won't **let** John face the danger alone.*
     *John is not **allowed** to face the danger alone.*
     *John is not **permitted** to face the danger alone.*
     *John is not **given permission** to face the danger alone.*

2. the majority of verbs followed by the 'full' infinitive in AV are preserved in PV, but the meaning may be either similar or different (35:62):

[4] 21:508, 27:45.
[5] 44:276, 67:156, 72:146.

- similar meaning (*appear, begin, come, continue, seem, tend*):
  The Does seemed to defeat the thugs.
  The thugs seemed to be defeated (by the Does).
- different meaning (*agree, aim, attempt, hope, refuse, struggle, try*):
  The Does struggled to release the thugs.
  The thugs struggled to be released (by the Does / or anyone else).

3. **Perfect Infinitive** is typical after passive verbs (*say, think, know, believe, consider, understand, claim, repor*t), resulting in past reference (26:36); this is in fact PV in reported speech:
   The Does are known to have landed safely in Neverland.
   John's father was known to have been killed in the World War II.

4. **Continuous Infinitive** refers to states still being valid:
   Jane is thought to be still fighting in the jungle.
   The Does are believed to be renting a penthouse.

5. **Double passive** constructions – although often unnecessary or awkward – are possible:
   John is thought to have been outranked by Jane. (Jane may have outranked John.)
   Jane was believed to be supported by sharp shooters.

6. Perfect Continuous Infinitive is also possible in PV:
   The Does are said to have been fighting for the country for a decade.
   John is reported to have been missing for three days.

7. **Passive Infinitive** constructions may even start the sentence (37:307):
   To be left behind is the nightmare of many soldiers.

3.2.2.2. Passive + Gerund / Participle

Certain verbs followed by *-ing* (*love, hate, enjoy, remember*) may be easily turned to PV:

I hate being interrupted.
He said he enjoyed being taken to the circus.
I remember having been given a banana when I was five.
Few people like being told what do.
The children are fond of being taken the theatre.
I object to being disturbed during my work.

Some constructions in PV may even start the sentence:

Having been offered the mission, John gladly accepted it.
After being equipped, Jane jumped out of the chopper.

After having discussed possible forms of PV, we should mention that the form is still not an automatic indicator of PV, the ultimate 'word' belonging to semantics (meaning). The sentences below try to highlight a certain gradience from AV to PV (cf. 75:135):

AV – PV Gradience		
AV	*Fiona**'s** not **Finnish**.*	*be* + adjective
AV	*Fiona**'s late**.*	*be* + adjective
AV–PV	*Fiona**'s thrilled**.*	*be* + adjective

AV – PV Gradience		
PV–AV	*Fiona**'s thrilled by** what she heard.*	*be* + adjective, indirect agent
PV–AV	*Fiona**'s thrilled by** Shrek.*	*be* + adjective (in)direct agent, conscious effort

Table 58. Gradience of AV–PV meaning

3.3. Uses of Passive Voice

Knowing that speakers favour AV, we are still faced with the main issue of PV, "when it is appropriate or even necessary to use it" (75:133), as it is not a "strange" alternative for the active. Whenever we have a 'dummy' subject in the Active Voice, such as somebody, one, we or they, we can already think of a passive construction, as it typically signals that "what is done is more important than who does it" (75:133–134).

There may be various reasons to use PV, even if the construction needs and extra auxiliary be. As correctly observed, passive structures are "bulkier" compared to active ones, so "where there is no real reason to use passives, active verb-forms are generally preferable" (48:123). Although the list below is not exhaustive, it contains typical possibilities focused around unknown and known agents:

I. the agent is unknown, so PV is necessary:

1. at the moment of speaking the agent(s) is / are unknown or unknowable (cf. 75:136–138):
   John's walkie-talkie was stolen yesterday.
   (If I knew the doer, I would mention his / her name.)

2. at the moment of speaking the agent is unknown, although ultimately knowable person (75:133):
   Somebody has contacted the HQ through the Internet. (traceable)

3. the agent is an unknown, general, large number of group:
   The band members were applauded enthusiastically after the concert.
   All 15,000 weapon crates were stolen during a single night.

II. the agent is not mentioned, although it is logically recoverable from the context (e.g. verb meaning) because:

1. typical actions carried out by certain people:
   John was promoted last week. (only a superior can do that)

2. the agent is too obvious, self-evident, thus redundant:
   My car is being serviced this week.
   (If it weren't the mechanic, I would mention his / her name.)
   Wounds must be treated at once.
   (mainly by a doctor or nurse, of course)[6]

[6] This sentence (one of many) shows again the importance of context: in theory it is true that competent people should treat wounds, yet in cases of emergency (which is why the sentence may have been uttered) the speaker may refer to himself / herself or others present who should carry out the task. Thus the statement is also an indirect imperative.

- when the agent is not the 'expected' one, its information value is so high that it is included in the PV structure or the AV form is used:
  Imagine, the wounds were treated by my neighbour (who is not a specialist).
  John could repair his ow car.

3. the interest in the 'sufferer' is greater than in the agent:
   Jane was hurt in the leg in her last combat.

III. the agent is known, but PV is preferred because:

1. the agent is unimportant, irrelevant, not of particular interest to the deployment, so the PV forms enables the speaker to focus on the action:
   Under no circumstances can he be disturbed now. (by anyone)
   A crater was formed due to the impact.
   The house was sold again six months later.
- however, in these cases the agent may still be included if it is "essential to the meaning" (75:133–136).

2. the agent is part of the officialdom, issuing official statements, notices, rules, in which case PV is a type of distancing (sometimes used in exaggeration), often combined with modal(-like) verbs; the statements sound more impersonal, leaving little space for resistance or (rather often) distancing from unpleasant facts or situations:
   Requirements are to be met without fail.
   Taxes must be paid in due time.
   Visual contact must be maintained at all times. (John, pay attention to me!)
   The deadline won't be met, I'm afraid.

3. when describing procedures, methods, demonstrations (scientific, journalistic style), as the action / method is more important than the performing agents[7] or we wish to describe "general feelings, opinions and beliefs" (44:273):
   John's behaviour is described as rather offensive.
   It has been demonstrated that fish is good for the memory.
- the 'dummy' subject (*it*) offers "tact", "modesty", "sense of objectivity" (75:132–133), minimizing the agent's role, thus the statement becoming more trustworthy.
- specific verbs are also used to create this 'neutral' feeling, such as *argue, describe, discuss, report, state, suggest*.

4. stylistic reasons: as English is subject prominent, PV highlights the importance of the object by turning it into the grammatical subject; to put it simply, due to "change of focus",[8] it is more logical to use PV:
   The workers processed a lot of food in July.
   A lot of food was processed in July.

5. subjective or "psychological" (33:267):
   My sandwich has been eaten. (John, any idea?)
   And now the best actor is going be rewarded.
   (And the presenter hands over a bunch of flower to himself.)

[7] 26:31, 31:50.
[8] 26:31, but also mentioned in 75:132.

- this option – together with the scientific and stylistic ones – is suitable for leaving out the agent out of courtesy, diplomacy, secrecy, humour (to maintain ambiguity), not make the agent look like a victim, etc.;

6. preserving grammatical fluency (cf. 33:266) or "awkward change of subject" (39:105):
   After Jane entered the jungle some thugs kidnapped her. (S1 – S2 – S1)
   After Jane entered the jungle she was kidnapped (by some thugs). (S1 – S2)

3.4. Verbs in Passive Voice

As mentioned before, verb meaning may offer a guide whether we are faced with AV or PV. The following sections present the most important verbs and verb categories playing a role in forming PV constructions and meanings.

3.4.1. Passive *be*

Certain constructions with *be* are connected to passive meanings:

- *be born* is always in passive construction; similar structures are: *be deemed, be populated, be stranded, be strewn, be taken back* (37:802), which may be AV in other languages:
  *No one knows where Jane **was born**.*
- describing states:
  *Her feelings **cannot be hurt**.*
  *I'**m bored** by this party.*
  *I'**m done** with you!*
  *I'**m finished** right away.*
  *If the knife **is broken**, its owner is as good as dead.*
  *English **is used** in aviation.*
  *Spanish **is spoken** in this area.*
  *Vodka **is favoured** over whiskey.*
  *John **has** never **been married** before, hoping that he **will** never **be divorced**.*
  (the form is passive, while the meaning is not)

3.4.2. Passive *get*

The semantics (meaning) of *get* is a rather complex one, causing trouble associated with PV as well.

First, it may prove difficult to decide whether *get* tends to be **passive** or **causative**; in this respect, a test may be applied: the possibility to be replaced by *be* (*am, are, is, was, were*), and if an agent may be associated with it. Its use is typically "restricted to constructions without an expressed animate agent" (29:802), and they are not used in formal style. To make matters worse, *get* is not an auxiliary, based on syntactic criteria (36:160). Although constructions with *get* may look like passives formally, the absence of a potential agent excludes this possibility:

Jane got hurt by a thug. (~ was hurt)
John's knife got stolen. (~ was stolen)
A thug hurt Jane with a rock. (active verb, passive meaning)
Jane got hurt with a rock by a thug. (~ *was hurt* + instrumental PV)
During the earthquake Jane got hurt by a rock.

(instrumental 'agent', involuntary event)
Not being attentive, Jane got hurt. (reflexive meaning, 'hurt herself')

While the last example is a reflexive structure, the recipient is also an agent, even if partially (37:797).

Thus it is safer to consider *get* as a 'resulting copula' (*get bored, ~ confused, ~ excited, ~ lost, ~ tired*, 36:161), especially when it is part of a reflexive structure. The 'reflexive' *get* followed by III. verb form replaces the reflexive pronouns, and they formally satisfy PV requirements, even if it is a special case (the logical subject and the agent coincide). They are not considered passive regarding their meaning (34:86):

get burnt ~ burn oneself
get changed ~ change your clothes
get cut ~ cut oneself
get dressed ~ dress oneself
get dried ~ dry oneself
get hurt ~ hurt oneself
get shaved ~ shave oneself
get washed ~ wash oneself

English prefers *get* over reflexive pronouns, and *grow, become (used to)* are other verbs similar in meaning to *get*:

Job requirements are becoming more and more specialised.
I'm sure he will get accustomed / used to it soon.

3.4.3. Ditransitive Verbs

Certain active verbs may be followed by two objects: an indirect object (the 'recipient', IO) and a direct object (the 'sufferer', DO), resulting in V+IO+DO. The PV version starting with the recipient is more common (13:412), although certain verbs are typically used with the DO (*deal, give, hand, leave, lend, offer, pay, sell, show*, cf. 3:525):

John promised Jane a red dress.
Jane was promised a red dress. (PV starting with IO)
A red dress was promised Jane. (PV starting with DO, emphasised)
Jane was left alone during the mission. (PV starting with DO, due to the verb)

However, if we accept the concept of 'psychological factor' we can prefer any of the two variants (cf. "focus of interest", 39:111). Further common ditransitive verbs are exemplified in the following table:[9]

accord	*deny*	*order (for)*	*save (for)*
allot	*command*	*owe*	*say*
allow	*do (for)*	*pass*	*send*
ask	*envy*	*permit*	*serve*
award	*get (~ obtain)*	*provide*	*spare (for)*
bring	*grant*	*read*	*take*
buy (for)	*find (for)*	*recommend*	*teach*
cause	*forbidden*	*refuse*	*tell*
cook (for)	*make (for)*	*reserve (for)*	*throw*

Table 59. Ditransitive verbs

[9] 2:46, 11:351, 26:30, 29:845.

3.4.4. Modal verbs in Passive Voice

Modal verbs also appear in PV. We should remember that 'future' tenses in English use *will* as a modal-auxiliary verb, so other modal verbs (*can, could, may, might, shall, should, would, ought to, need, have to*) may easily replace *will*:

Whey can be given to pigs.
Sunflower seed flour should not be given to fat pigs.
Jane could have been killed by the thugs in the fight.
John needn't have been sent to fight so early.

Users are usually warned about possible changes in meaning when modals are used in AV and PV (29:807):

Jane can't help John. (ability, restriction)
John can't be helped. (impossibility)

As discussed previously (Chapter 1), modal verbs are always followed by a I. verb form, typically expressing present or future meaning, and sometimes past (as remote forms). In case the modal verb is followed by *have* + III., its meaning is definitely past. We can draw the conclusion that modal verbs in PV are followed by either *be* (single possible form) + III., or *have been* + III. (2:47):

John's knife must be sharpened.
Jane might have been taken to prison.
She must be written to.

The Subjunctive Mood (cf. 4.2.) often relies on *should* in PV, as the introductory verbs (*advise, agree, arrange, beg, decide, order, recommend, urge*) trigger this construction:

The colonel ordered that the Does should be brought back home.

3.4.5. Sense Verbs in Passive Voice

Sense verbs in PV may take two forms, having different meanings:

We saw the Does leave the airport.
The Does were seen leave the airport. (finished, 'the entire scene')
The Does were seen leaving the airport. (unfinished, 'as they were leaving')

3.4.6. Reflexive verbs

Reflexive verbs in English are considered transitive, although not formally:[10] *cry oneself (to sleep), dress oneself, hurt oneself, please oneself, shake one's head, shave oneself, see oneself (in the mirror), teach yourself, wash oneself*:

Jane dressed herself quickly.
Jane got dressed quickly.
Jane dresses quickly.
"I'll lay me down." (cf. John Dryden, Paul Simon)

3.4.7. Ergatives and Quasi-Passives

Ergative verbs (or quasi-passives, cf. 8:82) may be defined in two ways:

1. verbs whose object repeats the meaning of the verb;
2. verbs which need no passive forms to express passive meaning.

[10] 7:80, 11:447.

This means that active verbs function as passive ones (11:353). In this case an originally transitive verb turns intransitive but still preserves passive meaning (3:186); these verbs may be used in both passive and active forms:

Active Voice	*John **opened** the gate.* *Jane **can** easily **clean** the surface.*
Passive Voice	*The gate **was opened**.* *This surface **can be** easily **cleaned**.*
Intransitive passive *(~ itself, ~ by itself)*	*The gate **opened**.* *This surface **cleans** easily.*

Table 60. Transitive – Passive – Ergative shift

Although ergatives may have ambiguous meanings, the context helps (4:419):

The gate is open now. (present state, passive shade of meaning)
The gate is open during the day. (repeated action, passive shade of meaning)
The gate is opened every day. (PV)
The gate opens once a day. (ergative, passive shade of meaning)
The gate won't open. (It's stuck.)
(ergative / passive intransitive meaning, also due to modal verb meaning)[11]

Further ergative examples (sentences and a word cloud) are presented below:[12]

Coelho's books are selling and reading well.
What's cooking? (informal)
The meat cuts easily, but the garlic peels with difficulty.
The notice reads both ways.
Toshiba laptops have sold very well.
The fabric of the army uniform does not wear, the shirt washes well and the trousers iron well.

Word cloud 9. Ergative verbs

Quasi-passives (29:809) may have *by*-agents (*feel encouraged*), but further prepositions may turn 'quasi'-agents (*about, at, over, to, with*):

The colonel was satisfied with the results.
Jane was shocked by the colonel's statement.

[11] Cf. the 'refuse to do'-meaning of *will* for both people and things (section 2.9.).
[12] Cf. 99:68, 4:419, 5:171, 8:82, 11:353.

3.4.8. Intransitive verbs in Passive Voice

Interestingly, there are some cases when intransitive verbs may be used in Passive Voice.

1. one of the main reasons that PV in English is much more used is that "a preposition always has an object, all prepositional verbs have direct objects".[13]
- a direct consequence of this observation is that intransitive verbs followed by preposition may be used in PV and intransitive verbs completed with prepositions act like transitive verbs:[14]
  The Does were sent for by the colonel.
- other verbs are: *account for, agree upon, attend to, care for (tend), come to (reach), deal with (analyse), laugh at (ridicule), listen to (hear), look after (send, tend), look at, look upon (regard), refer to, rely on (trust), send for (call), speak of, speak to, talk about, talk of (discuss), talk to, think of (consider), wait upon.*
- written (formal) style often makes use of these structures ('academic English', cf. 44:272): *be aimed at, be applied to, be based on, be considered as, be found in, be known as, be referred to (as), be regarded as, be related to, can be seen as, be thought of (as), be used as*.
- however, not all prepositional verbs may be used in Passive Voice (4:408):
  Jane and John jumped into the water.
  No one can sit on this place. (no PV possible)

2. complex verbs (*do away with, look down on, look forward to, look up to*) and expressions (*catch hold of, find fault with, lose sight of, make fun of, make use of, pay attention to, put an end to, set fire to, take care of, take charge of, take notice of, take possession of*) are also used in PV (21:513):
   People winning the Nobel Prize are looked up to.
   On returning to the base Jane's wounds will be taken care of.

3. some intransitive verbs have their transitive pairs in meaning; a remarkable example is to be found in Simon & Garfunkel's *The Sound of Silence*:
   *People **talking** without **speaking***
   People hearing without listening

4. intransitive verbs may turn causative:[15]
   John stood the ladder against the fence.
   The guerrillas have never floated the dinghy there before.
   Jane never walks the dog up that hill.
   The building houses three offices.

5. a vowel change may turn intransitive verbs to transitive ones (3:185–186):
   Hens lay few eggs in winter. (lie, lay, lain → lay, laid, laid)
   The soldiers felled all the trees in the area. (fall, fell, fallen → fell, felled, felled)

[13] https://www.englishclub.com/grammar/verbs-phrasal-verbs_1.htm, 03. 02. 2017.
[14] 14:35, 21:512.
[15] 3:185, 18:110.

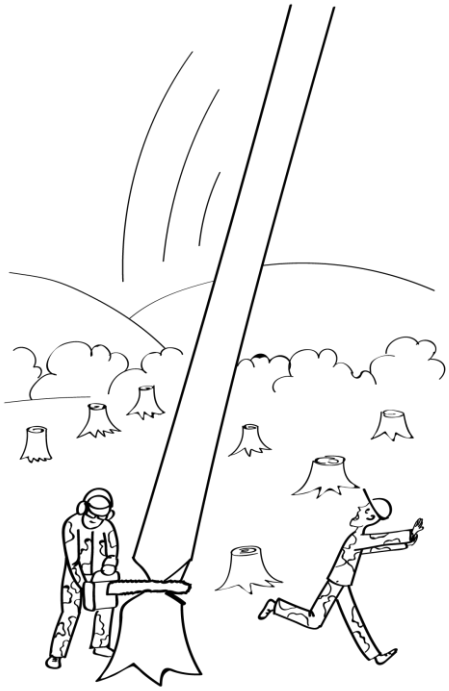

Illustration 28. The soldiers felled all the trees

6. a prefix or preposition may turn intransitive verbs to transitive ones (3:186):
   *The Does **live** happily.*[16]
   *I'm sure the neighbours will **outlive** the Does.*
   *A doctor was called **for**.*

3.5. Prepositions in Passive Voice

Certain transitive verbs are typically followed by prepositions, which are preserved in PV:

*They always look **up** foreign words.*
*Foreign words are always looked **up**.*
*People should look **after** their pets.*
*Pets should be looked **after**.*

Certain adjectives followed by prepositions tend to be used in PV form:[17]

*Jane has always been **interested in** secret missions.*
*John is always **annoyed by** the arrogance of the colonel.*
*Nobody was **disappointed with** the offer.*
*The Does are never **worried about** the future.*
*The colonel is **impressed by** their attitude.*
*I'm **excited about** the trip.*

[16] Certain verbs are connected to transitivity only through their 'cognate objects' (the noun form of the verb): *live a life*, which is dealt with in syntax.
[17] 4:415, 11:350, 68:147.

However, the importance of prepositions in PV shows in the fact that intransitive verbs followed by a preposition become transitive, so they may be converted to PV.

3.6. Form, meaning, logic in Passive Voice

We have already seen that form and meaning do not always overlap, and ergative verbs clearly exemplify that. However, there are further cases:

1. certain verbs in active form may have passive meanings: *receive sg, suffer from something*;

2. certain transitive verbs (*become, comprise, contain, equal, fit, have, hold, hope, lack, like, look like, love, mean, resemble, suit, want, weigh*) cannot have PV forms in some uses (29:803):

- AV and 'inherent' PV meaning:
  I like this place. ~ This place is favoured by many.
  Few people live a happy life. ~ Many people yearn to live a happy life.
  99 people live in this hotel. ~ This hotel houses 99 people.
  200 people lost their lives in the plane crash.
  (The plane crash caused the death of 200 people.)
  (200 lives were lost due to the plane crash.)
  (S change: persons – 'we')
- however, these verbs may still appear in PV combined with the infinitive (33:264) or having special meanings:
  Jane doesn't like to be sent in the jungle.
  John hopes to be supported by the colonel.
  Everybody likes Jane.
  Jane is liked by everyone.
  Life to be lived *was written by Catherine Proot and Michael Yorke.*

3. certain verbs have both transitive and intransitive meaning (26:30):
   The Does arrived at the point of extraction in time.
   (no PV form unless verb is changed)
   No conclusion has been arrived at.
   (PV possibility due to preposition, cf. section 3.5.)

4. in the case of *say* and *tell* the PV form may lead to change of meaning:
   I am told that the Does are at home. (narration)
   Jane was told not to reveal details about any mission. (order)
   The Does are always said to be highly effective. (~ considered)
   The Does are always told to be highly effective. (~ ordered)

5. suppose may have two different meanings in PV:
   Jane is supposed to know how handle a weapon. (obligation, duty)
   John is supposed to be in Neverland. (supposition or obligation)
   John is supposed to have returned from Neverland. (supposition)

6. certain transitive verbs (*cook, draw, drink, iron, paint, read, smoke, study, write*) may turn 'reduced' transitive ones, which means that their object may not be explicit (8:87):

Jane doesn't drink. (presumably alcoholic drinks)
The colonel drinks.

7. certain verbs of removal and exclusion (*banish, expel, discharge, eject, exclude, exile, forbid*) are mostly used in passive (48:122):
The Does were eventually discharged.
After returning from Neverland, John's tonsils were removed.

8. 'instrumental' PV refers to cases when an object causes something to happen; the instrument may act upon the sufferer either by itself or via an agent:
*John was hit **by** a branch in the jungle.*
*John was hit **with** a branch **by** a thug.*

9. the same word may be interpreted as being either part of the PV construction or an adjective, depending on the context (21:515):
The place was deserted [by the inhabitants] after heavy fights in the area.
(action => PV)
The place was deserted. (state => adjective, nominal predicate)
The journal was printed in Oxford. (action => PV)
The ad was printed in bold type. (state => adjective, nominal predicate)

10. verbs of 'incomplete predication' (*hold, last, resemble, seem, suit*) cannot be used in PV (16:367):
The Does do not lack courage.

11. 'reduced' PV may result from overused (idiomatic) expressions:
Bitten by the (travel) bug.
Inspired by true events. (books, films)

12. the brevity of western films often hides a 'reduced' PV (via ellipsis):
WANTED

13. metaphorical expressions may take the form of passive, although the agent is 'felt':
*"My hands **are tied**."* (U2 – *With or Without You*)

14. there are logical 'traps' connected to AV => PV conversion,[18] resulting in different meaning:
No one can see three people. – Three people are seen by no one.
(range of indefinite pronoun)
Few soldiers fight many battles. – Many battles are fought by few soldiers.
(range of indefinite numeral)
Children do tricks. – Tricks are done by children.
(range of zero article)
You can't use Jane's weapon. (It is forbidden.)
Jane's weapon cannot be used. (There are no more bullets.)
(multiple meaning of modal verbs, modal meaning change during AV–PV shift)

[18] 7:80, 16:373.

15. there are ambiguous constructions, which turn unambiguous by 'world knowledge' combined with grammar and logic:
    *Coelho's latest book **is printing**.*
    (Books do not print, so it must be an ergative verb: 'is being printed', cf. 11:353.)
    *I am having a drink, so I **will be drunk** soon.*

- the highlighted part is a pseudo-passive construction (referring to a process, resulting in a state), as there is no possible agent in the real world; yet, under the surface there is a hidden passive meaning referring to the drink which is going to be consumed.
  I was drunk yesterday. – The beer was drunk yesterday.

- although the sentences above may look funny compared to each other, they signal the importance of Subject–Verb relationship when interpreting them: once again, 'world knowledge' helps us decipher them; the first one is a pseudo-passive construction (*drunk* is an adjective, cf. 36:167), while the second one is PV.

16. verb meaning and 'world knowledge' may also contribute to a gradual shift in passivisation:
    All the 15,000 weapon crates disappeared.
    (suspect, but it may be a mistake in logistics)
    All the 15,000 weapon crates 'disappeared'.
    (hint that this is not natural)
    All the 15,000 weapon creates went missing.
    (they cannot just go missing, so ...)
    All the 15,000 weapon crates were stolen during a single night.

A possible conclusion is that a change of meaning is inevitable when turning sentences active or passive (cf. 27:50), and the speaker has to make the choice which version is more suitable to reach the desired effect. Having in mind that even the intensity of passive is different based on the verb meaning (cf. 'the passive gradient', 36:167), form, function and meaning may be puzzling:

The Does are encouraged to search for other thugs.
I understand if you are not interested in my proposal…
Jane's plan was destroyed.
The situation is getting complicated.

These sentences are hardly passives, as no active 'source' may be tracked. Thus it is proposed to use **central passives**, **semi-passives** (*feel encouraged, seem interested in, worried about*), or even **pseudo-passives** (36:167–171), detailed below. Semi-passives are often **catenative** verbs (similar in meaning to modal verbs: *appear to, get to, happen to, manage to, seem to, tend to*, cf. 37:401):

Jane appears to have been relocated.

3.6.1. Pseudo-Passive constructions

Pseudo-Passive constructions look like PV in form, but their meaning is obviously not associated with PV (no agent is detectable):

1. pseudo-passive constructions with *be* (15:129):
   *They **are determined** to watch series for hours on end.*

*Consequently, they **are** often **tired**.*
*I **am done** with watching TV series in the middle of the day.*
*The fame of Game of Thrones **is** not **gone**.*
Be gone now!
*He **is used to** hardship.*

2. pseudo-passive constructions with *get* ('resulting copula'; *become, grow*):
   John does not want to get drunk before 9 a.m.
   He has got used to hardships.
   Get lost! (cf. passive imperative)

- in these pseudo-passive constructions, the III. form takes the function of an adjective or describes a state 'in itself' (reflexive):

Word cloud 10. Pseudo-passives with get

3. pseudo-passive constructions with *make, cause* and *force* (7:195):
   *He couldn't **make** himself **understood**.*
   *The colonel **made** his importance **felt**, but the sight of blood **made** him **faint**.*
   *Who **forced** John **to leave** the jungle?*
   *We **had** the Does round for dinner. (colloq.)*
   (As there is no 'service', the last example is not a passive construction.)

3.7. Passive Voice and Syntax

Certain grammatical constructions involving Passive Voice are connected to syntax, detailed in the following.

3.7.1. Relative Clauses & PV

Relative Clauses are discussed in Syntax, belonging to a particular type of adverbial clauses. Relative Clauses containing PV form may be reduced, resulting in 'reduced relative clauses' (no relative pronoun, no *be*):

They produced various plans [...] drafted by different consultants.
[which had been]

Logically, future tenses should not be reduced, as they turn ambiguous:

They design green cars which will be mass-produced soon.

3.7.2. Object Complements and Subject Complements

The transitive verb taking a direct object (DO) may be followed by a complement, which describes the object, called Object Complement (OC). The OC is typically a noun or an adjective.

Logically, once the object turns the subject (S) of the Passive Voice construction, its 'satellite', the Object Complement also changes to Subject Complement (SC, 3:526–527); the 'formula' is the following:

AV + DO + OC => PV + SC

AV	*John* *The colonel*	*saw* *promoted*	*Jane* *John*	*smiling.* *captain.*
	S	V	DO	OC
PV	*Jane* *John*	*was seen* *was promoted*	*smiling.* *captain.*	
	S	V	SC	

Table 61. OC turning SC in PV

- further verbs of this type are: announce, appoint, believe, bring up, call, christen, consider, create, crown, declare, elect, find, get, have, imagine, leave, like, make, name, paint, prefer, pronounce, render, report, set, think (29:850).
- the OC may be a noun phrase or even an adjective phrase (29:852):
  *Jane was thought **pretty**.*
  *John was made **angry**.*
- the SC may become 'embedded' in the verb meaning:
  *St. Catherine of Genoa died in 1510 and **was beatified** by Pope Clement V in 1675.*

3.7.3. *It* and Passive Voice

The introductory or 'anticipatory' *it* (48:120) may become the 'impersonal' subject of PV if followed by certain (reporting) verbs (cf. stylistic or scientific use of PV):

AV + PV
The colonel announced that the Does would be promoted.
PV + PV
***It** was announced that the Does would be promoted.*

They think that his comrade is in trouble.
His comrade is thought to be in trouble. (more common, S + PV + *to*-infinitive)
***It** is thought that his comrade is in trouble.* (more formal, *It* + PV + *that*-clause)

Other verbs found in combination with introductory *it*[19] are listed in Table 62:

[19] 21:514, 29:833, 33:267, 35:64, 72:145.

acknowledge	*claim*	*expect*	*judge*	*report*
admit	*complain*	*fear*	*know*	*rumour*
agree	*consider*	*feel*	*mention*	*say*
allege	*contest*	*find*	*notice*	*see*
announce	*decide*	*forget*	*observe*	*show*
answer	*declare*	*guarantee*	*overlook*	*specify*
arrange	*demonstrate*	*hope*	*presume*	*suggest*
ask	*deny*	*ignore*	*propose*	*suppose*
assume	*discover*	*imagine*	*prove*	*think*
believe	*doubt*	*imply*	*recommend*	*understand*
calculate	*estimate*	*indicate*	*remark*	

Table 62. Reporting verbs with introductory *it*

Further examples:

***It** is understood **that** no one speaks during the time for private prayers.*
***It** has been told **that** the Does went missing in 2018.*
***It** is thought **that** there are too many wars.*
***It** is said **to b**e true.* (~ ***There** is said to be true*., leading to the next section)

The PV version with the infinitive is the "neater" version (cf. 33:268), detailed in Complex Passive Constructions (3.7.5.).

3.7.4. Passive Voice with *there*

A so-called preparatory *there* may become the 'impersonal' subject of PV if followed by certain (reporting) verbs (*acknowledge, allege, believe, consider, declare, know, recognise, report, say, suppose, think, understand*):

There is reported to be an uprising in Neverland.
There are thought be too many wars.

3.7.5. Complex Passive Constructions

3.7.5.1. Object Complement and Subject Complement

Certain verbs in active voice (*bake, beat, believe, boil, colour, consider, cut, designate, drive, elect, keep, lay, nominate, paint, say, set, think, understand, wash, wipe*) may be followed by an object and a complement referring to this object (OC). When converted to passive voice, this object complement structure results in a verb followed by a subject complement (SC, cf. 26:30 or 21:511):

V + O + OC => PV + SC
V + O + OC
The colonel considers [that] John [is] a combat expert.
V + SC
John is considered [to be] a combat expert.
V + O + OC
Jane kept the weapon close.
V + SC
The weapon was kept close.

Visibly, we are faced with reduced *that*-clauses; the 'full' version (*that*-clause in AV) becomes an Ⓘ construction in PV, and the verb is followed by Ⓘ + noun or adjective describing their object:

*People think **that** Jane is a courageous fighter.*

Jane is thought to be a courageous fighter.
S + PV + Ⓘ + SC
John was said to have been a combat expert.
*Let it be known **that** you are the best!*

3.7.5.2. Verbs and Infinitive

Verbs followed by an object and infinitive are often used in PV (66:105):

V + O + Ⓘ => PV + Ⓘ.; Acc. + Ⓘ => PV + Ⓘ
The colonel ordered Jane to accompany John.
V + O + Ⓘ
Jane was ordered to accompany John.
PV + Ⓘ
John is reputed to be effective in combat.

Similar constructions may be constructed with the following verbs (Ⓥ'object + *be*'):

acknowledge	*desire*	*hear*	*prefer*	*take*
advise	*encourage*	*help*	*reckon*	*tell*
allow	*entreat*	*instruct*	*remember*	*tempt*
ask	*estimate*	*intend*	*remind*	*think*
assume	*expect*	*know*	*report*	*understand*
believe	*find*	*like*	*request*	*urge*
challenge	*forbid*	*love*	*rumour*	*want*
choose	*force*	*make*	*see*	*warn*
consider	*guess*	*permit*	*seem*	*wish*
declare	*hate*	*persuade*	*suppose*	*would like*

Table 63. Verbs triggering PV + Inf.

The 'object + infinitive' construction is in fact an 'accusative + infinitive' structure, which turns to a 'passive + infinitive' structure (21:511):

Acc. + Ⓘ
The guards permitted the Does to enter the headquarters.
PV Nom. + Ⓘ
The Does were permitted to enter the headquarters.
Perfect Ⓘ
Las Vegas is considered to be a perfect place for gambling.
He is believed to be a genius.
Viruses are known to be harmful for computers.
These animals seem to have been killed by poachers.

3.7.5.3. Verbs and Participle

Infinitive constructions may alternate with participle constructions, depending on the verb:

V + O + Ⓟ => PV + Ⓟ; Acc. + Ⓟ => PV Nom. + Ⓟ
V + Acc. + Ⓟ
The guards heard Jane talking to the colonel.
PV + Ⓟ
Jane was heard talking to the colonel.

3.7.6. Other structures in Passive Voice

Other constructions may also be used connected to PV:

1. passive / causative imperative is typically formulated with *get* (41:242) or *have* (45:106):
   Get it done, I don't care how.
   Get the TV fixed.
   Have it plastered.

2. conditional sentences (Chapter 5), when both the sub-clause and the main clause may be in PV form:
   If the mission fails, the Does will be killed.
   If the mission failed, the Does would be killed.
   If the mission had failed, the Does would have been killed.
   The Does would be called if the extraction were / was ordered.

3. hypothetical constructions (Chapter 6):
   I wish he had seen the notice.
   I wish the notice had been seen.

4. reported speech:
   Jane thought that John could have killed nine thugs.
   John stated that nine thugs could have been killed (by him).

- reported speech may be combined with infinitive and gerund constructions in PV (simple, continuous, perfect forms):
  *It **is rumoured** that Jane is fighting in Neverland.*
  John is / was known to be punctual.
  (PV, Simple Ⓘ)
  Jane is / was rumoured to be fighting in Neverland.
  (PV, Continuous Ⓘ)
  Jane is / was rumoured to have been in Neverland.
  (PV, Perfect Ⓘ)

5. passive infinitive constructions with *be*,[20] being similar to the meaning of *must* (obligation, instruction, prohibition, interdiction, etc.):
   (Towels are) not to be taken out of the room.
   To be repeated three times a day. (procedure, exercise)
   To be taken before meals. (medicine bottle)
   Not to be Reproduced (*La reproduction interdite* by Rene Magritte, 1937)
   Teeth must be washed regularly.
   She needs to be understood.
   This is typical with the previously mentioned negative structures:
   There's nothing to be seen in this town.
   John is nowhere to be traced.
   Homework is to be written.

[20] 41:81, 45:106.

Illustration 29. Homework is to be written

- perfect infinitive is naturally introduced by 'reporting' verbs (15:128) such as *acknowledge, believe, claim, consider, know, report, say, think, understand*:
  The Does are reported to have gone missing three days ago.

3.8. Causatives and Passive Voice

Non-native speakers tend to avoid English causative constructions, as they seem more difficult to use than PV. This is mainly due to the fact that however simple the initial form may look, a single word (most typically *have*) takes the form of all the nine tenses that are possible in PV.

However, according to a recent source (37:801), the causative *have* construction (similarly to *get*) should be interpreted as a pseudo-passive one.

3.8.1. Causative *have*

A special type of **passive construction** is expressed by **causative constructions**, in which case the object is the sufferer or recipient of the action. The logical subject usually 'hires' another agent 'for the job', thus contributing indirectly to the action. However, this construction is also called 'passive-like' causative, as *be* is not included. Causative forms highlight the logical object (16:378).

The basic structure is the following: *have something done*. In this structure *have* stands for the formal tense (with PV auxiliary meaning; there are nine versions, one for each tense used in PV); *something* is the object, while *done* is the III. form of the weak verb, associated with the meaning. The table below displays all causative options connected to tenses:

Tense	AV	Causative Passive Voice
①	*Jane **plucks** a duck every year.*	*Jane **has** a duck **plucked** every year by Peter Schott.*
②	*Jane **is plucking** a duck now.*	*Jane **is having** a duck **plucked** now.*
③	*Jane **has plucked** a duck.*	*Jane **has had** a duck **plucked** (by Peter Schott).*
⑤	*Jane **plucked** a duck yesterday.*	*Jane **had** a duck **plucked** yesterday.*
⑥	*Jane **was plucking** a duck at 8 a.m.*	*Jane **was having** a duck **plucked** at 8 a.m.*
⑦	*Jane **had plucked** a duck before John got home.*	*Jane **had had** a duck **plucked** before John got home.*

Tense	AV	Causative Passive Voice
⑨	*Jane **will pluck** a duck next week.*	*Jane **will have** a duck **plucked** next week.*
⑪	*Jane **will have plucked** a duck by 9 a.m.*	*Jane a **will have had** duck **plucked** by 9am.*
⑬	*Jane **is going to pluck** the duck soon.*	*Jane **is going have** the duck **plucked** by Peter Schott.*

Table 64. Causative *have* in tenses

The examples illustrate how causative have can refer to services done by someone else (involving a passive meaning) to / for the benefit of the logical subject (26:35), and it is often associated with negative things (nuisance, unfortunate, unexpected events):

Jane had her favourite duck stolen last night.

As there is no agent in the sentence, Jane is obviously the 'injured party'. However, if an adverb is included, the situation changes, expressing 'experience' (cf. 41:210):

*Jane had her favourite duck stolen **back** last night.*
(Jane got the duck back with the help of someone.)

Although causatives, similarly to Passive Voice, do not include the agent 'by default', it may happen that they are important (or known) enough to be inserted (cf. 2:59, 8:590):

Jane had Peter Schott pluck the duck in two minutes.
(check it on *Youtube*)
Jane could hardly get Peter Schott to pluck the duck.
John made the colonel accept his proposal.
The colonel replied: "I'll make you pay for this!"

On analysing the difference compared to the previous 'formula', this one is more complicated:

John	*made*	*Jane*	*raise*	*her voice.*
Subject 1	causative verb	Subject 2 = IO	I.	DO

Table 65. Causative with included agent

The sentences above prove that *make* and *get* are synonymous with *have* in this context, but it is also important to observe that the presence of the agent forces us to use the weak verb in its I. form: *have* and *make* are followed by the 'short' infinitive (without the *to* particle), while *get* is followed by the 'long' infinitive (verb with the *to* particle), detailed in the following.

Further possible replacements for *have* are *want* or *need* (8:595):

*Jane **wants** her weapon checked.*
*Johns **needs** his parachute tested.*

Causative structures in the future tend to express commands or promises (44:278):

I'm sure Jane will have the duck plucked in no time.
John is going to have his knife replaced.

Causative *have* may be combined with modal verbs as well:

People should have their problems solved by themselves.
The Does must have their memoirs written.
Jane might have her weapon checked by a ballistic expert.

3.8.2. Causative *get*

As the name suggests, *get* may be a colloquial alternative to *have*[21] in causative constructions ('resultative' get, 16:365), expressing various meanings:

1. *get* may express obligation ('force somebody to do something'), associated with the modal meaning of *must* (thus also used in imperatives, cf. 26:35):
   *Jane got **John to cook** dinner.*
   *John couldn't get **the colonel to understand** the importance of that jungle.*
   - at syntactical level this is referred to as the Acc. + *to* Ⓘ (cf. 8:589, see also causative *make* in 3.8.3. below).

2. *get* may express effort in finalising a task ('manage to', cf. 26:35):
   John finally got promoted.
   - in this case both a passive and causative meaning is to be observed:
     *John **was promoted** + **with difficulty** by his boss.*

3. *get* is often used to express negative meanings (surprise, difficulty, obligation, unexpected or unwelcome change of states), unless premeditated:
   How did he get defeated? Jane got hurt and John's knife got broken.
   If you get caught (by the enemy), you know what to do.
   I'm getting tired of these sentences.
   *When the Does **got married** they promised they would never **get divorced**.*
   - in the last sentence we can observe the combination of passive, reciprocal and reflexive meanings, and there are views that the highlighted parts should be treated as 'pseudo-passive' constructions, as there is no identifiable agent.

4. *get* may be part of stock phrases or idiomatic constructions followed by the III. verb form, and it is preferred in imperatives (70:132):
   *I don't care how, but **get** it **done**!*
   (obligation, 'pseudo-passive' construction)
   Get started, the thugs are approaching!
   Get seated, I cannot see anything because of you!
   Get changed! (Change clothes!)

These expressions may have special meanings (cf. 47:76):
- involving certain difficulty, which was nevertheless surmounted:
  I got the computer fixed.

[21] Especially in speech, cf. 33:265.

Illustration 30. I got the computer fixed

- denoting unpleasant events, especially associated with verbs for crimes, in which case the subject is 'victimized':
  John got his car lifted.

3.8.3. Causative *make*

Make is used in PV, expressing obligation, coercion, or pressure. However, it is a major verb in causative structures as well:

1. it can have passive meaning by itself (*force*), or used in passive construction, followed by *to* (27:46):
   The colonel made John accept the mission.
   *John **was made to accept** the mission. (~ forced to)*

2. *make* may express causative meaning, typically headed by the agent (4:422) and followed by a name or personal pronoun + adjective ~ causation 'force':
   Champagne makes me drunk.
   (You) Make yourself comfortable.
   Who made you feel like a fool?
   The colonel made Jane cry. (Acc. + bare Ⓘ, cf. 8:591)
   *Jane was made **to** cry.* ('to' particle needed in PV)
- other verbs which take *to* in PV are: *bid, feel, hear, let, see, watch* (cf. 11:351).

3.8.4. Causative *need*

Although we discuss *need* either as a modal (Chapter 7) or a weak verb (Chapter 1), it is also used in constructions with causative / passive meaning:

1. *need(s) doing* is basically associated with service,[22] which is combined with impersonal and persuasive passive meaning; the form is made up of *need* (or a verb similar in meaning: *deserve, require, want*) followed by a Ⓖ form:
   John's knife needs (no) sharpening.
   All Jane's weapons need scrubbing and polishing.
- this use of causative *need* may have modal alternatives combined with causative *have*:
  John must / have to / should have the knife sharpened.

[22] As one of the sources explains, it "is an idiomatic way of expressing some passive sentences, usually about things or people which need some kind of service" (27:46).

I must / have to / should have John's knife sharpened.

2. Ⓖ may be replaced by the Passive Ⓘ (*to be* + III.):
   John needs to be saved.

3. *deserve, require* or *want* may be valid alternatives to *need*:
   Jane's weapons want cleaning.
   John deserves to be decorated.
   We've been told that our house requires demolishing.

4. passive or non-passive use of *need* may overlap and become problematic to distinguish, unless logic and 'world knowledge' is used (cf. verb meaning):
   The window needs some cleaning.
   Jane needs some backup.

This section reminds us the complexity of grammar descriptions. We have already presented *need* as a weak verb (1.5.4.3.), then we refer to it as a marginal modal verb (7.3.12.), and the present section discusses it as causative *need*.

Having in mind that it is not as frequent as *have*, we can only hope that the examples for each section are enough to make the reader an effective user of multi-meaning verbs (be it *need, have, be* or any other verb). Those who need more, can delve into the meta- and paralinguistic effects of indirect imperatives on hearing the sentence:

The furniture needs dusting.

The sentence above may be an elegant way of urging 'someone' to do the job, mixed with an air of irony (who else than the one or ones who is / are nearby?) or expressing authority. While it is simpler to make use of a standard imperative, the effect may be totally different.

3.9. Proverbs in Passive Voice

Almost was never hanged.
Marriages are made in heaven.
Never ask pardon before you are accused.
Rome was not built in a day.
The shoemaker's wife is the worst shod.
The road to hell is paved with good intentions.
What is done cannot be undone.
What may be done at any time is done at no time.
What may be done at any time will be done at no time.

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4. MOOD

Mood basically expresses "the speaker's attitude towards what is said" (49:93) or the "manner or mode of action expressed by the verb" (3:44). Nevertheless, the definition of mood is problematic, as it is connected to the "distinction between the real and the unreal" (48:107), which are "two fundamental aspects of human existence" (11:299).

Mood is "closely related to the problem of modality" (48:108), thus expressing the **relationship** between the **speaker** and the **perceived reality**. There are both synthetic (one word) and analytical forms (at least two words, one of them typically a modal verb) in English to express the unreal, and the problem is largely due to the fact that we are faced with formal overlap among moods:

- the I. and II. verb forms are used for various moods;
- modal verbs are employed to express various meanings associated with different moods.

In a syntactical approach, finite verbs express the predicate,[1] which is characterised by person and number mentioned previously, but a finite verb may express moods as well; in present day English the majority of grammars mention three different **finite moods**:

1. **indicative** mood – factual, expressing certainty and reality (considered to be 'real' by the speaker) in the form of tenses and aspect, detailed in Chapter 2, where the examples are formulated in this mood, unless otherwise stated; it refers to the majority of verbs in declaratives (46:80), that is in affirmative, negative and negative-interrogative sentence structures, as well as exclamatives;

2. **imperative** mood uses the uninflected verb form (I.), detailed in the next section;

3. **subjunctive** mood (non-factual), taking the form of **present** subjunctive, which uses the uninflected verb form (I.), and the **past** subjunctive using ***were*** (46:80); as detailed in 4.2., these terms are controversial, as they only reflect the verb forms (I. and II.) and have little to do with the meaning.

There are grammars that mention **conditional** mood, also referred to as irrealis (non-factual) mood, "conveying varying degrees of remoteness from factuality", where the meaning is associated "with modality, not time" (52:58).

The conditional mood (expressing possibility and probability) is usually dealt with more intensively, as it is rather distinctive in English, presenting many types; however, we are going to discuss them separately (Chapter (5) in the form of conditional sentence types with further possible combinations, followed by hypothetical constructions, which should be considered connected to unreality (see Chapter 6). However, other grammars combine subjunctive and conditional mood, relying on the overlap of meanings regarding *should*, *would* and *were*.

Non-finite verbs contribute to **non-finite moods**, as they cannot form the predicate by themselves:

[1] 14:6–9, 17:130.

1. infinitive Ⓘ (short, long, split)
2. gerund Ⓖ
3. participle Ⓟ

Non-finite moods may be further diversified with continuous and perfect variants or other constructions (e.g. Acc. + Ⓘ, Nom. + Ⓘ, absolute Ⓘ).

4.1. The Imperative Mood

The Imperative Mood formally coincides with the Indicative Mood, Present Simple (I. verb form), except for the third person singular and with the present Subjunctive (48:109).

Its form implies the second person (both singular and plural) as the subject (*you*) by definition (11:315). Unless emphasised (*Do it now!*), the time of Imperative Mood is the moment of speaking or (near) future time.

An initial problem is that the form "is not used uniquely for this purpose", as categorical orders and commands may be completed with entreaties (48:109), invitations and instructions also take the form of orders (75:62), while the meaning derives from the context and intonation, addressed to the second persons, both singular and plural:

Help yourself to some cookies.
Open the door and take the stairs to the left.

A further issue is that orders may take the form of polite requests:

Would you mind taking a seat, please.

Due to these reasons we are warned that – technically speaking – "[i]t is not possible to identify a form which has this function, nor a function which is uniquely identified with the form. The logical conclusion is that English does not have 'an imperative'" (75:62).

The imperative mood typically refers to either 'now' (the time at the moment of speaking, direct orders), or a 'universal' time (any time whenever a particular situation arises, instructions).

Sentences formed with the help of the imperative mood are called imperative sentences and are constructed in at least four ways (cf. 14:230):

- imperatives without the subject; this is the only case when there is no subject in a standard English sentence, as it is "self-evident from the circumstances" (75:62), except for poetic or elliptic structures;
- imperatives with explicit subject (emphasised form);
- imperatives with *let* (see section 1.5.2.5.);
- other constructions with imperative value.

4.1.1. Forms of the Imperative Mood

The form of the imperative mood may be:

- 'simple': *Stand up!*
- compound: Do stand up, please.
- stylistic negative imperatives may lack *do*: *Live not to eat, but eat to live.* (saying)

The standard imperative mood is defective in forms, so only affirmative and negative forms are possible:

Stop!

Be happy!
Don't trust anyone!
Don't be sad!
Don't stop me now! (Queen)

Illustration 31. Don't stop me now

However, the affirmative form may be emphasised by:

1. the insertion of the emphatic (dummy) *do*:
   ***Do** be quiet!*
- *do* is undeniably used to construct imperatives, yet it is known that many imperative structures need no *do* (cf. invitations, warning, irritation, 75:156):
  Trust no one!

2. the insertion of the subject (personal or reflexive pronoun, name, affectionate substitution of *you*) may lead to "fine shades of emotional distinctions" (48:109), such as emphatic persuasion (41:269), tenderness (11:317), or a tenser situation, such as "dissatisfaction" (11:317), or even "anger, hostility or rudeness" (40:186), "annoyance, impatience and scorn" (48:109):
   ***You** be quiet!*
   *Behave **yourself**!*
   ***John**, listen to me!*
   ***Darling**, marry me!*
- when more subjects are involved, a 'distributive' imperative may be used to avoid confusion (11:317) or to be more effective:
  ***You two** be quiet, and **you three** stop bickering.*

3. third person may be rarely used (indefinite, demonstrative pronouns, 46:50):
   Everybody *keep quiet!*
   Somebody *help me please.*
   Those *with children leave.*

4. starting with *always* or *never*:
   Always *follow the orders.*
   Never *listen to the crowd.*

5. followed by question tags (4:446), most typically *will* or *won't*, but other modal-auxiliaries may also be used; the question tag may express a "less categorical command" or "request" (48:109):
   Help me, will you?
   Don't do that again, will you?
   Help her, can't you?
   Be polite, could you?

The **negative** form may be emphasised by:

- the absence of contraction:
  Do not touch that button!
  (more emphasised prohibition, pressed not)
- *you* in negation expresses anger (4:446):
  Don't you ever do that again.
  Don't yell at me, you fool.
- other negative words may be used instead of *not* (11:316):
  Never leave your comrade behind.
  None of you enters the jungle!
  Nobody move!

4.1.2. Uses of the Imperative Mood

Major uses of the imperative mood[2] are:

1. orders, commands:
   Keep quiet!
   Don't talk!
   Will you stop doing that!
   Would you refrain from smoking, please?

2. urges, prohibitions, public notices:
   Go home!
   Don't do that!
   Keep off the grass!

3. requests, advice, suggestions:
   Be back by nine, please.
   Let's go home earlier.

[2] 9:36, 23:479–480, 40:185–186.

4. warnings:
   Mind your language!
   Be careful with that rifle!

5. giving directions (see 2.1.2.) or instructions:
   Go down the street and turn left.

6. invitations and offers:
   Pay us a visit some time.
   Help yourself to some cookies.
   Make yourself comfortable.

7. encouragements:
   Give it a try!

8. wishes for people's welfare (41:242):
   Thanks for attention and have a nice day!
   Enjoy the show!

9. impolite (rude, vulgar) expressions, expressing irritation:
   Get lost!
   (cf. pseudo-passive, logic and meaning in PV)

However, this is a very short list of possibilities, as human communication is immensely rich when it comes to intended meaning and 'implementation' (verbally expressed form).

As imperatives may be felt rude, various politeness markers ('softeners') may accompany orders, requests, warnings, etc.; it is also to be observed the blurred line between direct imperatives, indirect ones and (emphatic) questions or (polite) requests:

1. *please*,[3] which may be end- or front positioned (more emphatic):
   ***Please**, listen to my arguments.*

2. *Shall we? Will you?* leading to disjunctive questions;
   ***Will you** think about that, **please**?*
   ***Would you** reconsider Brexit, **please**?*
   ***Shall we** try it again, **please**?*
- the above forms actually direct us towards 'neutral future' (cf. Future Simple):
  ***Will** you listen to me, **please**?*

3. other modal verbs are often used to express the imperative (11:318); in these cases, PV is applied as a further possible softener, being less direct:
   *Rules **must** be obeyed.*
   *Warnings **should** be taken into consideration.*
   ***If** you **could** sign it **here**, **sir**.* (further softeners: *if*, *here*, *sir*)
- however, modal verbs may emphasise the imperative:
  *You **must** follow the orders, without fail.* (advice, imminent necessity)
  *You **are to** be back at 7.* (emphasised command)

4. certain verbs, such as *mind* or *wonder*:

[3] 4:231, 447; 11:318.

*Do you **mind** changing seats?*
Would you mind changing seats?
*I **was wondering whether** you will do the dishes…*

5. certain adjectives and adverbs, such as *kind* or *kindly*:
   *Will you be **so kind as** to have a look at these papers?*
   *I wonder if you would **kindly** read this application.*

6. certain nouns, such as *darling, guys, my sweet(heart), kiddies, kiddo* (slightly condescending):
   ***Guys, guys, guys**, cool down, please.*

7. other softeners, such as *now, just* or *here*:
   ***Now**, don't do that again.*
   ***Just** come here, will you?*
   ***Here**, let me help you.*

Imperatives may also be followed by sentences with *will* (linking words: *and*, *or*), resembling conditional sentences (41:242, cf. Chapter 5):

Read the e-mail and you'll know what to do. (imperative)
If you read the e-mail, you will know what to do. (conditional)
Eat your spinach or you won't get chocolate. (imperative)
If you don't eat your spinach, you won't get chocolate. (conditional)

In fact, the use of *will* results in a blurred form and function, as Indicative and Imperative Mood are both viable interpretations (cf. 48:109):

You will wash your teeth regularly (from now on).

More than that, the Imperative Mood "may take over the function of the Subjunctive Mood" (48:109):

Say what you will, I will choose him to marry.
Say what you would, we should separate.

We have already discussed *let* as the auxiliary for the Subjunctive Mood (1.5.2.5.), but it is also an "imperative auxiliary" (46:50):

***Let** Jane lead the attack.*
***Let** there be light.* (impersonal imperative)

The productivity of imperative constructions is also signalled by a number of **proverbs and sayings**:

Don't make yourself a mouse, or the cat will eat you.
Give a thief enough rope and he'll hang himself.
Grasp the nettle and it won't sting you.
Laugh before breakfast you'll cry before supper.
Make yourself all honey and the flies will devour you.
Set a beggar on horseback and he'll ride to the devil.
Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.
Tread on a worm and it will turn.
You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours. (possibly ellipted conditional)

4.1.3. Other Imperative Forms

The previous section presented cases with verbs contributing to the imperative mood, but there are imperative structures without verbs as well (4:446; 14:231):

No smoking. (sign, impersonal construction)
Wet paint! (sign, impersonal construction)
Walking on the grass not allowed! (legal notice)
This way, please. (elliptical structure)
A return to Berlin, please. (elliptical structure)
Out with you! (elliptical structure)

4.2. The Subjunctive Mood

4.2.1. Introduction

To start with, Subjunctive Mood forms are characterised as "linguistic fossils" (75:155), which are to be memorised as fixed expressions. There are further similar opinions about the reduced importance of Subjunctive Mood (e.g. due to the spread of modal verbs used as auxiliaries, cf. 48:110):

- "The subjunctive is not an important category in contemporary English and is normally replaced by other constructions." (29:76–77);
- "The subjunctive in modern English is generally an optional and stylistically somewhat marked variant of other constructions, but it is not so unimportant as is sometimes suggested." (36:155);
- "On the whole, subjunctive verb forms are little used in modern English." (38:294);
- "The subjunctive hardly survives as a distinctive form nowadays, except in the past tense of to be in conditional clauses, when *were* is used for all persons" (39:95);
- "Older English had subjunctives, but in modern English they have mostly been replaced by uses of *should*, *would* and other modal verbs, by special uses of past tenses, and by ordinary verb forms. English only has a few subjunctive forms left: third-person singular present verbs without *-(e)s*, (e.g. *she see*, *he have*) and special forms of *be* (e.g. *I be*, *he were*). Except for *I / he / she / it were* after *if*, they are not very common." (41:559–560)

Nevertheless, opinions may be divided, as there are views that we witness a "surprising … partial revival of specifically subjunctive forms of verbs" (48:110), especially in formal, written language, although this might be a "passing tendency" (48:111).

A more daring statement is that it is impossible to offer an ultimate list of verbs, adjectives and nouns used in subjunctive structures as subjunctive constructions are "very much alive" with "attested examples' (87:999–1000).

While these remarks may result in neutral feelings among native speakers, non-native speakers are still faced with subjunctive forms, whose meaning is difficult to grasp.

Grammars discuss Mood after the verbs, types and voice, starting with personal moods (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, sometimes Conditional), followed by impersonal ones (Infinitive, Participle and Gerund), highlighting that Subjunctive Mood and conditional structures are close in both meaning and structure (e.g. 4:423).

Subjunctive Mood is formally categorised as old / new (11:300–301), or present / past (16:379), but it is connected to **morphology** (verb forms), **syntax** (identified in clauses) and **modality** (modal verbs, Chapter 7); more than that, its meanings lead to **conditional** sentences (Chapter 5) and **hypothetical** constructions (Chapter 6), thus the following sections deal with its form, use and types.

4.2.2. Forms

Although many grammars state that Subjunctive Mood has no distinctive forms, it is more productive to accept that verb forms are not necessarily 'designed' for particular moods, tenses or meanings. Thus we say that I. and II. verb forms (cf. basic and remote forms) are used in the Subjunctive Mood as well (similarly to the Indicative and Imperative Mood), except that there is no conjugation (36:155):

1. 'present' subjunctive (46:266): *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they* + I. verb form or *be*;
   The colonel insists that the Does lead the attack at dawn.
   The colonel insists that the Does be present at the HQ at 1500.
   Fewer and fewer insist that the UK be outside the EU.

2. 'past' subjunctive (46:266): *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they + were*:
   If only the Brexit were cancelled!
   Were the colonel sober, he would get drunk immediately.

While the present subjunctive uses the I. verb form (mainly in *that*-clauses, which are also called mandative subjunctive forms, as they often express demands requirements, requests),[1] the past subjunctive (46:206) is traceable in hypothetical constructions (see Chapter 7):

It is necessary that we understand the importance of the mission.
The colonel insisted that Jane be in charge.
If I were you, I would marry John.

As all forms are identical, they can refer to unreal past (where the action should have happened), possible actions in the present or projected in the (virtual) future time (14:36, 44:174). Thus the terms 'present' and 'past' only refer to the form (even if inadequate) and "clausal constructions (77:27) and not inflections.

Because the formal differences between the Indicative and Subjunctive Mood have almost disappeared in modern English, it is only the subject followed by a non-inflected verb form to offer a clue:

I know that God saves the Queen. (indicative)
God save the Queen! (subjunctive, fixed / formulaic expression)
It is imperative that you be there in time. (subjunctive)
It is impossible that Jane should defeat the thugs all by herself. (subjunctive)
He wished that I be there as well. (subjunctive)

However, even referring to form, 'present' and 'past' are problematic,[2] as we cannot distinguish them from Past Simple (52:85–87), except for the 'irrealis' *were* for the first and third persons; besides, there is a perfect Subjunctive form (11:303, 10:64–67), which coincides with the Past Perfect Simple:

If I were in Japan, I would buy a Toshiba notebook.
I wish I hadn't met that guy.

Instead of trying to discuss subjunctive forms compared to tenses, it is worth classifying types as (cf. 16:192):

1. **synthetic**, which is one word (uninflected I. verb forms, such as *be* and *were* for all persons and numbers), resulting in mandative, formulaic and *were*-subjunctive), and
2. **analytic**, which contains a modal verb, followed by I. or *have* + III. verb form.

[1] http://www.onlinegrammar.com.au/subjunctive-recommend-that/, 14. 07. 2017.
[2] A much harsher explanation: "Modern English does not have a subjunctive mood to speak of. It therefore makes little sense to speak of the 'present subjunctive' forms of English verbs, simply because they cannot be distinguished from the plain forms." (77:278).

Subjunctive Mood is typically used after specific verbs (e.g. *suppose, wish,* detailed later) or connectors (11:303):

Word cloud 11. Connectors for Subjunctive Mood

Subject–verb inversion is possible if the connector is ellipted (46:267):

*There is no doubt what to do, **come the weekend**. (~ 'when the weekend comes)*

4.2.3. Using Subjunctive Mood

While the Indicative Mood is associated with reality, Subjunctive Mood is about unreal, hypothetical or non-factual events or situations,[3] and it has even described as 'a thought mood' (mentioned in source 100, quoted in 23:491).

We have already seen that distinguishing mood, tense or aspect on a formal basis is pointless (cf. 78:94), thus meaning gains an extra importance, knowing that Subjunctive Mood is "the one designed to give you a headache" (57:167).

We believe, this 'headache' can be mitigated if we list possible options of non-factual (contrary-to-fact) situations:

1. circumstances contrary to fact:
   If I were stronger, I could lift that sack.

2. concessions:
   Come what may.

3. conditions:
   If John arrived home, the car would be parked here.

4. demands (orders, requests):
   The colonel demanded that John file a report by midday.

5. desires:
   I wish you were younger.

6. doubts:
   We doubt that you should be telling lies.

7. fears (*lest, for fear, afraid*) or hopes:
   *They ran away **for fear** they might be executed.*

[3] 11:299, 23:491, 49:170.

8. hypothetical scenarios (cf. 49:94–95):
   If you were younger …

9. imaginary scenarios:
   Were the griffins and ghouls show up …

10. necessities:
    If need be, I can join you.

11. possibilities:
    If you should see a ghoul, …

12. presuppositions:
    Suppose that you should meet a ghoul. What would you do?

13. proposals:
    Consider that we should be married.

14. purpose or aims (*lest, so that*):
    I'll clean the house lest you should be nervous.

15. suggestions:
    They suggest Jane (should) start the operation at dawn.

16. suppositions:
    I guess that you should need a husband.

17. surprise (4:439):
    It funny that we should meet here.

18. wishes (blessing, curse, protest, etc.):
    I wish you were happier.

These are typically met in the following uses:[4]

- **formal** language, such as rules, regulations, treaties, appeals, scientific and technical, parliamentary contexts, legal documents:
  The procedures require that evidence be presented in front of the Court.
- **literary** language, such as archaic language, poetry, fiction or journalistic style;
- in **reported speech**, which is typical for *that*-clauses (see Mandative Subjunctive):
  Jane demanded that she lead the attack.
- subjunctive verb forms are more frequent in AE, as BE prefers alternatives: Indicative Mood, *-ing* or analytic constructions (predominantly *should*, cf. 8:134–136), although the AE subjunctive forms are spreading:
  *It is vital that prisoners **are** supervised at all times.*
  *If I **was** you, I would accept the offer.*
  *Jane suggested **postponing** the attack until the next morning.*
  *Jane suggested that the attack **should be postponed** until the next morning.*

[4] 44:174, 45:130, 49:94–95, 23:494, 55:100.

As these uses indicate that Subjunctive Mood is not a disappearing construction, the next section deals with types of subjunctive.

4.2.4. Types

Categorising types of Subjunctive Mood (29:76–77) forms contains overlapping terms, as we can differentiate **synthetic** (present, past and perfect subjunctive, but disambiguation is necessary), and **analytical** forms, which contain a modal verb followed by various verb forms. However, grammar books usually discuss the following three types:

1. mandative *that*-clauses (44:174):
   *It is still necessary **that** we **should** discuss about the incident.*

2. formulaic subjunctive with fixed phrases:
   May all your dreams come true!
   So be it!

3. the *were*-subjunctive, although "the vast majority of native speakers now prefer *was*" (75:155):
   *If I **were** you, I'd quit.*

4.2.4.1. Mandative Subjunctive

Mandative Subjunctive, as its name suggests, mainly expresses demand followed by a *that*-clause, and the "modal meaning" (77:279), may be associated with speech acts, such as command, recommendation, resolution or intention, making it necessary to discuss subjunctives connected to modal verbs as well (see putative *should* and analytic constructions).

This is the most common type of the subjunctive; as only the base verb form (I.) is used in the *that*-clause ("no concord between subject and finite verb", 36:156), it is called synthetic subjunctive (14:36):

*It is demanded that Jane **file** a report about the incident asap.* (formal)
*It is necessary that Jane **should file** a report about the incident asap.* (less formal)
*It is necessary that Jane **filed** a report about the incident asap.* (informal)
*It is necessary for Jane **to file** a report about the incident asap.* (infinitive)

As there is no formal agreement between the subject and the verb, it may happen to have so-called 'covert' mandatives (87:135, 995), as there is no specific marker:

*It is essential that Jane **deploys** the attack at dawn.* (ambiguous, covert mandative)
*The colonel **demanded** that the attack **started** at dawn.* (covert mandative)
*It is essential that Jane **lead** the attack at dawn.* (subjunctive mandative)

Disambiguation – as mentioned before – is possible in BE:

*It is essential **for** Jane **to lead** the attack at dawn.*
*It is essential **to carry out** the attack at dawn.*

Let may also function as a subjunctive marker (87:641):

*Let me check. (**lest** there be any problem).*

As mandative *that*-clauses are 'new' types of subjunctive, they can express "the needs of both common people and mass media" (11:299–300), with the help of specific verbs, adjectives and nouns detailed in the following section.

4.2.4.2. Analytical Subjunctive and Modal Verbs

We have seen in the previous section that *should* may appear in a subjunctive structure, although not compulsory. However, when a modal verb is indispensable in a subjunctive structure, we can talk of an **analytical subjunctive** structure (16:192), where modal verbs are associated with hypothetical meanings, such as possibility, necessity, obligation, intention, permission, or assertion (cf. 28:33).

Thus mandatives belong to epistemic modality (expressing demand, insistence, necessity, cf. 87:994–998), and this way they are connected to Imperative Mood as well, exemplified below:

It is necessary that Shrek apologise.
It is necessary that Shrek should apologise.
(*should* mandative, *necessary* is stronger than *should*)
The others insisted that Shrek should apologise.
It is possible that Shrek may apologise to them.
It is possible that Shrek might apologise to them. (less possible than *may*)
Shrek must apologise.
Apologise!

Illustration 32. Apologise!

It is suggested that *should* or other modals are 'weaker' in mandatives (87:994–998) than in other modal constructions (cf. Chapter 7), as they are limited to wishes (14:39), formulaic expressions (*May you be happy!*) or conditional meanings (cf. Chapter 5). This may be supported by the fact that declaratives are possible alternatives to mandatives:

*It is essential that Shrek **apologises** to Donkey.*

Should is the most commonly used modal verb in subjunctives (in which cases its modal meanings are reduced, compare with 7.3.19.), and is typically associated with possibility or presupposition in mandatives starting with:

1. adjectival constructions (see 4.2.4.3.), which is why the term 'emotional' *should* (connected to adjectives such as *wonderful, sad, amazing*, etc.):
   *It is **amazing that** John **should** be able to face four thugs at once.*
   *It is **necessary that** John **should** listen to the colonel.*
   *Jane is **disappointed** that the colonel **should** hesitate about the importance of the attack.*

2. noun constructions:
   *There is **no reason why** John **shouldn't** listen to the colonel.*

3. verb constructions:
   *It is **ordered** that Jane **should** report at 2200.*

4. the so-called 'putative' *should* (possibly existing or coming into existence) is used when "the construction is close in meaning to a conditional *if*-clause", with "suasive" (suggestive) meanings,[5] or when the *that*-clause has an "evaluative, reflective, attitudinal or emotive meaning" (77:290); the structure is more favoured in BE:
   *It's a **pity** that the Does **should** wait until dawn.*
   How should I know? (idiomatic exclamation, indirect question)
   ***Who should** speak **but** Donkey!* (idiomatic exclamation)
   ***Who should** I see **but** Donkey?* (idiomatic interrogation)
   ***That** he **should** dare speak like that in front of the children!*
   ***Why should** I listen to you?* (idiomatic exclamation, indirect question)
   *The colonel **insists** that they **should** attack at dawn.* (suasive)

5. the *if … should* structure is used to refer to very unlikely situations:
   *Stay alert **if** John **should** show up earlier.*

6. fear or contingency, possibility may be expressed with the following structures, in which cases other modal verbs may be used as well (cf. 87:2002):
   *The colonel ordered retreat **for fear** the Does **should / might / may** be run down.*
   *The colonel ordered retreat **lest** the rebels **should / could / may** run them down.*
   *The colonel ordered retreat **in case** the rebels **should / may** use chemical weapons.*
   ***Whatever** John **should / might** do, it won't matter now.*

7. there are idiomatic constructions with the subjunctive *had* and *would* (11:306), further detailed in sections 7.3.17. and 7.3.21.:
   *You'**d better** stay out of this.*
   *I'**d rather** get involved in it.*
   *I'**d sooner** die than stay out of this!*

[5] 36:1014–1015, 38:127, 46:266, 94:118.

4.2.4.3. Verbs, Nouns and Adjectives in Subjunctives

Although it is impossible to offer a full list, the most common verbs, adjectives and nouns may be listed as a guide towards subjunctives,[6] expressing various speech acts, followed by *that*-clauses:

1. **verbs** associated with subjunctive, either Active or Passive Voice, have the following structure:

- **I.** or **II.** verb form + ***that*** + (***should***) + **I.**
  John demands that the action (should) take place asap.
  Jane is requested that she be in shooting position.
- collected verbs are:

advise	*demand*	*insist*	*request*	*stipulate*
agree	*desire*	*instruct*	*prefer*	*suggest*
allow	*determine*	*intend*	*pronounce*	*suppose*
arrange	*enjoin*	*make sure*	*propose*	*urge*
ask (~ request)	*ensure*	*move*	*recommend*	*vote*
beg	*entreat*	*offer*	*regret*	*wish*
command	*expect*	*ordain*	*require*	
decide	*grant*	*order*	*resolve*	
declare	*hope*	*pledge*	*rule*	
decree	*hurry*	*pray*	*settle*	

Table 66. Verbs for Subjunctives

2. **nouns** associated with subjunctive:

- a possible structure is: ***There is*** + noun + ***why … should***
- another possible structure is: ***It's a … that … should…***
- collected nouns are:

about time	*determination*	*motion*	*request*	*surprise*
advice	*entreaty*	*need*	*requirement*	*urging*
agreement	*high time*	*order*	*resolution*	*thought*
arrangement	*hint*	*a pity*	*ruling*	*wish*
decision	*idea*	*pledge*	*a shame*	*wonder*
decree	*insistence*	*preference*	*stipulation*	
demand	*instruction*	*proposal*	*suggestion*	
desire	*intention*	*recommendation*	*supposition*	

Table 67. Nouns in Subjunctives

3. **adjectives** associated with subjunctive (resulting in impersonal constructions) may have the following structures:

- ***It + is / was*** + adjective + that + (should) + I.
  It is necessary that the Government (should) take action.
- ***It + is / was*** + adjective + for sy to do sg
  It is natural for John to support the colonel's decision.
- ***It + is / was*** + adjective + of sy to do sg
  It is right of you to defend the truth.

[6] Major sources are: 8:134–136; 11:305; 15:165–166; 26:50; 36:156–157, 1182–1183, 1224; 37:606; 38:294; 44:174; 45:130; 46:268; 48:111; 49:94–95; 57:169; 58:377; 77:288–291; 87:999.

- … + ***is / was*** +adjective* + ***that + … (should)*** for a putative effect:
  I'm glad that you should enrol in the RAF.
- collected adjectives (* marks the putative effect) are:

*absurd**	*despicable**	*important*	*pleased**	*stupid*
*admirable**	*disappointed**	*impossible*	*pleasing**	*surprised**
advisable	*disappointing**	*improper*	*possible*	*surprising**
*alarming**	*disastrous**	*incomprehensible**	*preferable*	*tragic**
*amazing**	*dreadful**	*inconceivable**	*probable*	*typical**
*annoying**	*eager*	*incredible**	*proper*	*understandable*
*anxious**	*embarrassing**	*insistent*	*remarkable**	*unjustifiable*
appropriate	*essential*	*interesting*	*(only)*	*unfortunate**
arranged	*extraordinary**	*irrational**	*reasonable*	*unusual*
*awkward**	*(only) fair*	*irritating**	*requested*	*upsetting*
better	*fitting*	*keen*	*required*	*urgent*
clever	*fortunate**	*lamentable**	*ridiculous**	*vital*
compulsory	*frightening**	*likely*	*right*	*willing*
*crazy**	*funny*	*logical**	*sad**	*wise*
crucial	*glad**	*natural*	*shocking**	*wonderful*
*curious**	*good**	*necessary*	*silly**	*wrong*
*deplorable**	*imperative*	*odd**	*sorry**	
*depressing**	*normal*	*peculiar**	*strange**	
desirable	*obligatory*	*perplexing**		

Table 68. Adjective in Subjunctives

Subjunctive forms may also be in PV, negative or continuous (progressive) forms:[7]

*The HQ ordered that the rebels **be annihilated**.*
*It is demanded that the local TV channel **be broadcasting** local news 24/7.*
*Rules ensure that visitors **not be** in security areas.*
*It is expected that weapons **not be left** behind at any costs.*

4.2.4.4. Formulaic Subjunctives

Formulaic Subjunctives are in fact optatives expressing wish or will.[8] They are considered to be 'old',[9] and being fixed phrases, their meaning should be learnt as "lexicalised items" (75:155), knowing that they are "formal and rather old-fashioned in style" (36:157), so their use belongs to the "elevated prose", slogans or specific (optative) wishes:[10]

BLESSING	CURSE	NEUTRAL
Bless you!	*Curse this fog!*	*a year come tomorrow*
God be praised!	*Curse you!*	*as it were*
God bless you!	*Damn you!*	*as luck would have it*
God forbid that…	*Drat the fellow!*	*Come what may!*
God help you (if…)	*God damn (it)!*	*Come holidays and…*
God save the Queen!	*God rot you in hell!*	*If need be...*
Heaven be praised!	*Prices be hanged!*	*Say what you will, but…*

[7] 44:174, 46:266.
[8] Cf. 87:944, 36:157.
[9] Cf. 10:64–67, 11:299.
[10] Mostly collected and adapted from the following sources: 4:440; 10:64–67; 11:300; 14:36; 16:192; 23:491–505; 26:50; 29:76–77; 38:127–128, 294; 41:560; 44:174; 45:131; 46:267; 48:110; 49:94–95; 87:90, 944.

BLESSING	CURSE	NEUTRAL
Heaven forbid!	*Taxes be hanged!*	*Wish you were here.*
Heaven help us!	*That be hanged for a tale!*	
Long live our friendship!	*The Devil take him.*	
Long live peace!	*Woe betide the ruthless.*	
Long live the Emperor!	*Woe is me!*	
Long live the King!		
Long live the Republic!		
Success speed you.		

Table 69. Formulaic Subjunctive examples

The examples clearly show that they contain a I. verb form (*be, live, say, come, bless*, etc.; exception: *were*), and three more formal remarks may be useful:

- the subject may be implied (although it resembles imperatives, the meaning is clear):
  Bless him! Damn it!
- *may* is used to form typically positive formulaic (optative) wishes:[11]
  May all your dreams come true![12]
  May God bless you all.
  May I never hear your name again!
  May he live long!
  May the best man win.
  May you be happy!
  May you never feel this again.
  May you stay forever young!
  Long may Jane be victorious![13]
- inversion is observed in a few expressions (especially starting with *be*):

Be it known that …	*Happen what may*!
Be it remembered.	*So be it then!*
Be it said without meaning to be rude.	*So be it.*
Be that as it may!	*So help me God!*
Be that as you wish!	*Suffice it to say…*
Blessed be the hour! (poetic)	*Would to God that …*
Far be it from me to…	*Would that Jane were still alive!*

Table 70. Inversion in Subjunctives

4.2.4.5. *Were*-Subjunctives

***Were*-subjunctive** is a diplomatic way of referring to a particular structure, in which the form and meaning has led to ambiguous terminology:

*I **wish** John **were** in the jungle with me.*

As *were* is a II. verb form often used to express Past Tense, it is called 'past' subjunctive in some grammar books,[14] even 'Subjunctive Preterite' (16:192); in a similar vein, there is 'present' subjunctive (using *be, come, live*, cf. formulaic subjunctive forms) and 'perfect' subjunctive (*had been, would have been*).

[11] 11:307, 87:944, 3:142.
[12] *May* forms a hypothetical construction with wish, described in 6.2.3.3.
[13] Cf. imperatives with *let*, although *may* is followed by a subject in 3rd person.
[14] 11:302, 14:36, 23:495, 44:175, 45:131, 77:279.

However, other sources refer to *were* as the 'present' subjunctive,[15] because they focus on its meaning, thus 'past' subjunctive is the *had been* structure; a major drawback of this terminology is that I. verb forms (*be, live*) overlap with 'present' *were*.

Another proposal introduces the 'irrealis' *were* (87:87), recognizing that the previous terminology is "quite unjustified" as "the meaning difference is clearly not one of time but of modality", concluding that "irrealis were does not refer to past time" and "be is not a present tense form". This is seemingly a serious issue in English grammar, as we can mention two further problematic statements (highlighted by A.I.):

- "the past simple or **past perfect tense** is used when we suppose what is impossible" (76:152) and
- "hypothetical **past**: *it's time we **were**…., if I **were** you*" (29:638)

As such, *were* expresses unreal cases (counterfactual, false at the moment of speaking), being "an unstable remnant of an earlier system" and "it now serves to express modal remoteness as well as past time" (87:88).

After having considered all terms, we would like to opt for the term ***were*-subjunctive**, which is also used in a few sources,[16] which can be distinguished from I. verb forms, knowing that "it may be regarded as a fossilized inflection" (36:158), or "[i]t is an untidy relic of an earlier system" (52:59).

As for its use, it expresses present unreality, non-factual (contrary to present fact), hypothetical situations,[17] and more specifically uncertainty, wish, suggestion, demand, or condition clearly contrary to fact (55:102), which is why it gains a modal meaning, while the temporal (past) meaning becomes remote (52:58, 87:1002).

The concept of 'remote' (best developed by Lewis) refers to I. (basic) and II. (remote) verb forms, including the modal verb pairs (e.g. *can – could*), politeness, etc. The remoteness of *were* in subjunctive structures offers "varying degrees of remoteness from factuality" (52:58). Thus *were* is used in conditional sentences (Chapter 5, type II) and hypothetical constructions (Chapter 6).

This leads to the recognition of *were* as a mood form for all persons, compared to *was*, which is a tense form:

*If I **were** rich, you'd know about it.*
*If he **was** at home, he took a shower.*

The examples clearly show that the *were*-subjunctive is applied in hypothetical conditional clauses (Chapter 5) and further hypothetical constructions (Chapter 6), as it is mostly associated with the following phrases:

as if	*had better*	*it's time*	*it's about time*	*('d rather)*
as though	*had rather*	*suppose*	*unless*	*would sooner*
even if	*if*[18]	*if it were so*[20]	*what if*	
even though	*if it was so*[19]	*if only*	*wish*[21]	
had best	*it's high time*	*in case*	*would rather*	

Table 71. Phrases for *were*-subjunctives

[15] 10:64–67, 15:151.
[16] E.g. 36:155, 38:294.
[17] 49:94–95, 46:268, 29:76–77, 81:159, 48:110.
[18] Cf. the idiomatic expression*: If I were you …*
[19] Referring to reality.
[20] Referring to presupposition.
[21] Idiomatic expression*: I wish I were you.*

Examples:

*Jane acted **as if** she **were** lost.*
*I **wish** I **were** faster.*
***If** John **were** alone, he couldn't handle the situation.*
***If only** the colonel **were** more supportive.*
***Suppose** John **were** alone. Could he handle the situation?*
***If** they **were sleeping** now, the thugs could get much closer to them.*

Were to is a 'semi-auxiliary' (46:269), having a similar meaning:

*If you **were to** shoot a thug, would it bother you?*

As *were* is 'fossilized' in these structures, we can accept that *was* is also possible in the 1st and 3rd person singular, and is actually used by "many speakers",[22] showing a growing tendency (48:110), even if it is considered to be more informal or even substandard:[23]

*If only Jane **was** happy.*
*I wish John **was** next to me.*

However, *if* connected with *was* is not an automatic indicator of a subjunctive case:

*If the colonel **was** in charge, the Does must have talked to him.*

There are two notable exceptions when *were* cannot be replaced by *was*, as they are part of fixed (idiomatic) phrases:[24]

***If I were you**, I would marry her.*
*The colonel is satisfied, **as it were**.* (~ so to speak, in a way)

A further case when *was* cannot replace *were* is when there is a subject–verb inversion, in which case *were* expresses a hypothetical situation (38:294, 46:269):

Were you in my shoes, what would you do?

4.2.4.6. Subjunctive Clauses

We can observe the importance of modal verbs at morphosyntactic level, leading to the **analytic** (or periphrastic) subjunctive, which means that a modal verb is present in the structure (see 4.2.4.2), and the meaning is 'equivalent' to a subjunctive construction:

*They ordered that the Does **should** lead the attack at dawn.*
*They suggested that the Does **could** lead the attack at dawn.*
*The colonel fears the Does **might** be captured.*

At syntactic level, various clause types stem from subjunctive structures:[25]

- Subject Clauses (*It is / was* + adjective + subjunctive):
  ***It was strange that** they **should** meet at the airport.*
  It has been suggested that the Does be promoted.
  *It's **time** we **left** the premises.*
  (cf. hypothetical constructions in Chapter 6)
- Object Clauses (after transitive verbs such as *agree, command, demand, hope, insist, order, regret, request, suggest, suppose*, etc.):
  *The colonel **wishes** that the Does **be** ready for action in 5 minutes.*

[22] 77:279, 44:175.
[23] 11:302, 38:294.
[24] 29:77, 46:269, 77:280.
[25] 4:441, 23:497–505, 36:1013, 38:127–128, 46:267, 87:993.

(cf. hypothetical constructions in Chapter 6)
*Donkey **suggests that** Shrek **should** apologise.*

- Attributive Appositive Clauses:
  *Donkey's suggestion, **that** Shrek **should** apologise, is not unfounded.*
- Adverbial Clause of Place:
  ***Wherever** Jane **may** be now, she will survive.*
- Adverbial Clause of Time (temporal):
  *John goes undercover **until** the rebels **should** reveal their hiding place.*
  ***Whenever** the Does **may** start a new mission, the colonel is relieved.*
- Adverbial Clause of Comparison:
  *The colonel gives orders **as if** he had been in a similar situation before.*
- Predicative Clause:
  *It seems **as if** John **were** lost in the jungle.*
  (hypothetical construction)
- Concessive, Conditional and Contrast Clauses:
  ***(Al)though** John **should** be able to contact the HQ directly, he will not risk it.*
  ***Even though** they **may** be surrounded, the Does won't give up.*
  ***However** trained John **be**, he cannot win all the time.*
  *Isolated **though** John **might be**, he cannot contact the colonel to ask for help.*
  *Jane would hold her position, **even if** she **should** be left behind.*
  *John will hold his position, **no matter what should** happen.*
  ***No matter how** hard they **may / might** try, the rebels can't find the Does.*
  *The Does won't ask for mercy, **even if** they **should/may/might** be surrounded.*
  *The Does won't give up, **whatever should / may / might** happen.*
  ***Whatever be** the problem, Jane could sort it for sure.*
  ***Whatever** the rebels **should** try, the Does are prepared for it.*
  ***Whether** John **be** in the jungle or not, the enemy should not know about it.*
  ***Whoever may** search for Jane and John online, they will find nothing about them.*
- Purpose Clauses:
  *Jane contacted the colonel **so that** he **should** be kept informed.*
  *John covered his face in mud **lest** the enemy **should** spot him.*
  *John covered his face in mud **so that** the enemy **might** not spot him.*
  *Let's focus **in order that** we **should/could/may/might** finish the job in due time.*
  *Let's focus **so** that we **should / could / may / might** finish the job in due time.*
  *Let's focus **so** we **should/could/may/might** finish the job in due time.*
  *Let's focus **that** we **should/could/may/might** finish the job in due time.*

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5. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

5.1. Introduction

Conditional sentences may constitute a few problems for non-native speakers, as some of the previously discussed tenses are 're-used', albeit with different meanings: next to real events discussed so far, we also have to consider unreal, non-factual ones.

Agglutinative languages may express conditions with suffixes, while English has no 'conditional' tenses or suffixes. Consequently, the importance of a conditional connector introducing the subordinate conditional clause is amplified as it alters the meaning of the I. and II. verb forms discussed previously.

A few grammar books discuss conditional and hypothetical constructions together; first, conditionals[1] are discussed (e.g. 13:272–340), then 'other' hypothetical constructions follow (13:341–371), as hypotheticality is in fact "the degree of probability of realisation of the situations referred to in the conditional", especially in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence (92:88). As the previously discussed tenses in Chapter 2 are factual, they "represent the lowest degree of hypotheticality" (92:88), even if "hypotheticality is a continuum, with (perhaps) no clear-cut divisions… different languages simply distinguish different degrees of hypotheticality along this continuum", and the chosen form is often "determined by subjective evaluation rather than by truth-conditional semantics" (92:88).

It is also important to note that the "expressed degree of hypotheticality need not correspond to one's actual belief, much less to the real world" (92:91), detailed in 5.4.

Although conditionals are amply described in all descriptive grammars, their presentation is mostly problematic. One of the reasons is that conditionals "interact extensively with other domains" (causals, temporals and modals, cf. 98:4), while the other one is that the semantics of conditionals is more important than their morphosyntactic structure (98:4); thus the meaning of the verb phrase is central and less emphasis should be placed on the sentence (cf. 75:153), which we will try to support in subsequent sections (5.2., 5.3., 5.4. and especially 5.6.).

In case the syntactic structure is highlighted, the entire category of conditionals is unclear: "the question of what constitutes a conditional construction in a given language has as yet no adequate theoretical answer" (98:5), as the form does not serve as a clear guide for several reasons:

1. not all sentences containing a formally conditional connector have conditional meaning (41:233):

   ***If** John accomplished his mission, **then** he is already back.*
2. while the form may not contain a conditional connector, the meaning may still be conditional (cf. reduced and implied 'conditionals' in 5.6.):
   *One more word **and** you'll end up in prison.*
   *Stop talking rubbish! (**Or** I'll sue you.)*

[1] **Conditional** refers to a **conditional sentence**, which – most typically – is formed by a **main clause** (apodosis) and a **subordinate conditional** clause (protasis), without particular restrictions upon the clause order.

3. the logical relation between propositions may be misleading, as "users of natural languages tend to reject the validity of false antecedent implying true consequent and often assume some kind of causal connection between the propositions" (98:5); to put it simply, knowingly false conditions may be considered as potentially true (cf. rhetorical conditionals in 5.6.):
   ***If** she is happy, then I'll be damned. (Just take a look at her sad face!)*

4. a further problem is caused by grammar books by using confusing terminology; in this case, the **subjunctive** mood is used to refer to both **conditional** and **hypothetical** structures, but also as "the past tense being used for unreality, especially in conditional sentences", or "simple, uninflected, form of the verb in subordinate clauses" (78:12), resulting in unnecessarily puzzling examples with both I. and II. verb forms, instead of first discussing them separately;

5. certain grammar constructions, such as **reported speech** seem to have little effect upon the condition, as changing the tenses (verb phrases) is based on logic and not compulsory (thus tend to remain), leading to the conclusion that neither conditionals nor reported speech is a 'special case', but "part of the general patterns" (75:32):
   ***If** John weren't hungry, he **wouldn't be devouring** the meal.*
   *They **knew** that **if** John **weren't** hungry, he **wouldn't be devouring** the meal.*

Illustration 33. John devouring the meal

After presenting a few introductory remarks, it is worth presenting various definitions of conditionals, being an important topic in philosophy, linguistics and logic (mathematics) as well.

5.2. Definitions of condition

Condition in philosophy[2] is rather intricate, but it is widely accepted that it happens in a time frame, namely something precedes something else; thus **condition** is similar to **time**, knowing that if there is no event, there is no time. Cause and effect interact ("it is because") and typically happen in time, and events are mostly experienced as point-like changes, even if some of them are invisible. If there is cause, there are consequences, but it may happen that only the cause changes (e.g. 'different state') or we may interpret cause as purpose.

Conditions are specifically discussed in **logic** as the truth-function "p ⊃ q" (*if p, q*), which is false only when *p* is true and *q* is false;[3] further key terms are *only if* (also used in mathematics), leading to the reciprocity of necessary and sufficient conditions, which is amply discussed as mistaken, similarly to the **truth** functions "*if p, q*" and "*p only if q*" are equivalent.

However, a standard definition of conditional sentences derives from logic: '*if p then q*',[4] which leads us to a syntactic (linguistic) approach: there is a main clause (called apodosis) and a subordinate clause (called protasis, the *if*-clause), introduced by one of the conditional connectors (see 5.3.). Thus the logical properties of conditionals "depend on the relation between antecedent and consequent, and that in turn depends on beliefs" and "even where the antecedent specifies completely the state of affairs in which the consequent is to be evaluated, the relation may be an entailment" or a "mutual entailment" (91:73):

If John is expert in explosives, he knows how to make a fuse bomb.
If Jane has a husband, then she is married.

Although the '*if p then q*' formula is already problematic in logic, seemingly it causes a real headache in linguistics as well. The main issue is that natural languages use *if*-sentences when the main and sub-clause are truth-related, requiring a causal connection between the two propositions (cf. 92:86). However, there are various types of condition connected to factual possibility: "the truth of the proposition in the protasis is dependent on the truth of the proposition in the apodosis" (30:168); to put it simply, "the truth of the statement in the main clause is a consequence of the fulfilment of the condition in the conditional clause" (16:475).

Although speakers usually formulate true conditions (knowing that one false proposition entails another, cf. 30:175), this is not always the case:[5]

I'll be damned if I understand this.
If you are Elvis Presley, then I'm the Pope / a Dutchman.

The two sentences are described as rhetorical conditionals (cf. 5.6.), as they are strong assertions (16:485) in fact, and both propositions are to be understood as false, which is further 'aggravated' by the fact that there is no causal relationship between the main and the subordinate clause.

The speaker of the first sentence is sure that (s)he does not understand it, so (s)he is not worried about the self-imposed curse, while the second case is similar: the speaker is

[2] While it is impossible to discuss condition adequately from the perspective of philosophy in a paragraph, I am indebted for this introductory idea to Imre Ungvári-Zrínyi.
[3] https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/necessary-sufficient/, 03. 08. 2017.
[4] Unfortunately, the formula does not say what happens if the truth condition is not true. I am grateful for this remark to one of my former tutors, Péter Pelyvás, delivering a lecture on English Grammar Reconsidered (22. 04. 1999).
[5] Cf. 16:485, 78:175.

sure about the falsity of both parts. Not to mention, that the second example involves a temporal aspect as well: in the 21st century it is widely known that Elvis Presley is not alive.

Furthermore, it has been correctly observed that due to the present time reference, it is difficult to distinguish 'hypothetical' from 'conditional'. Thus we should consider definitions of **condition** in linguistics:

1. "a situation that must exist before something else is possible or permitted";[6]
2. "an arrangement that must exist before something else can happen";[7]
3. "a premise upon which the fulfilment of an agreement depends" or "something essential to the appearance or occurrence of something else", but also "a restricting or modifying factor";[8]
4. "the prototypical meaning of '*if / ?*' is the speaker's uncertainty / uncontrollability of *p* is meant to be an elucidation, and not a denial, of the intuitive insight of the popular characterisation of conditionals as 'hypothetical'", even if "conditionals are not necessarily hypothetical" (96:344);
5. the meaning of conditionals is "the ability to envisage states of affairs that may or may not correspond to reality" (91:65);
6. "A condition is something that has to be fulfilled before something else can happen. *If*, normally meaning 'provided that', is sometimes followed by *then*. If *then* is not stated, it is implied" (40:273);

These definitions clearly show that conditionals are connected to time (cf. philosophy) and hypothesis (cf. logic), but they contain new elements as well: for instance, the truth value and causality is not highlighted and conditions may be **implied**, reaching the following summary:

> [conditionals] reflect the characteristically human ability to reason about alternative situations, to make inferences based on incomplete information, to imagine possible correlations between situations, and to understand how the world would change if certain correlations were different. Understanding the conceptual and behavioural organization of this ability to construct and interpret conditionals provides basic insights into the cognitive processes, linguistic competence, and inferential strategies of human beings. (98:3)

Consequently, we can understand why it has been so problematic for "philosophers, logicians, and linguists to find the common denominator that links" future predictives (cf. 5.4.1.) to counterfactuals (cf. 5.4.3.) or generic conditionals (97:288), and we do not claim that it is easier after having presented possible definitions. Yet, we tend to think that the semantics of verb phrases will offer valuable insights into the logic of conditionals, even if this results in more than three types of conditionals, which are typically mentioned in the majority of grammar books.

[6] https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/condition, 02. 08. 2017.
[7] http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/condition, 02. 08. 2017.
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5.3. Conditional connectors

The previous section discussed *if* as 'the' logical connector between the subordinate conditional clause and the main clause, but there are many other connectors to express condition, listed below:

- ***and*** (informal spoken language, but compare it with *or*, mentioned below):
  Don't drink and drive.[9]
- ***as if*** (connecting clauses):
  The colonel gives orders as if he knew everything.
- ***as long as*** (less formal than *provided that* or *providing that*, cf. 36:1093); it also functions as an implied conditional connector (74:103):
  As long as you are here you can help me.
  I'll be there for you as long as you need me.
- ***as though*** (a synonymous term with *as if*):
  George behaved as though he had seen a ghost.
- ***assuming (that)*** (used for open conditions):
  You can join us assuming that you can be of help.
- ***but for*** (sentence opening, meaning 'if it weren't for' or 'if it hadn't been for'):
  But for John, Jane would have been in trouble.
- ***even if*** (cf. *even though*):
  Even if Shrek loves his family, he couldn't handle the first Christmas party.
- ***ever***, headed by *how, what, when, which* and *who* may express conditions which seem to be unchangeable,[10] and they may be associated with concessive clauses:
  However exhausted, the Does always accomplish their missions; this is why they are alive.
  Whatever you think, he is right about that.
  Leave whenever you wish.
  Choose whichever option you prefer.
  Whoever told you that, it is not true.
- **except that** or *except for*:
  Shrek is a good friend except that he is a bit eccentric.
- ***given (that)*** is used in open conditions or formal argumentation (cf. 36:1093):
  We're quite OK given that we've missed the plane...
- ***if and only if*** is used to refer to a necessary and sufficient condition in mathematics and formal logic, abbreviated as *iff*, while it may also be used to emphasise the condition in everyday communication:
  I'll believe you if and only if you show me your records of the case.
- ***if only*** expresses an intense hope, wish,[11] a desire or regret concerning something not easily attainable or has not occurred (65:179), being more emphatic than *I wish*:
  If only he was telling the truth…
  If only you could succeed this time.
  If only I would be more confident.
- ***imagine*** (sentence starter):
  Imagine that Jane lost a fight!

[9] Slogan, quasi-conditional use in prohibitions. cf. 36:932.
[10] Cf. 37:752, 67:160.
[11] 33:204, 36:1092.

- ***in case (of)***, referring to a possibility, compared to *if* (cf. 41:245):
  Be prepared in case the colonel gives new orders. (He might change the order.)
  Be prepared if the colonel gives new orders. (Take a standby position.)
- ***in the event of*** is synonymous with *in case*;
- ***in the event that*** is synonymous with *in case*;
- ***just so (that)*** is used in informal conversation;
- ***lest*** means 'for fear that', belonging to negative words, thus it is followed by an affirmative verb, and it is often associated with *should*:
  Be prepared all the time lest the enemy should run down the camp.
- ***no matter***, accompanied by *how*, *who*, *what* or *when*:
  Basic principles: no matter what, no matter when, no matter who... any man has a chance to sweep any woman off her feet. He just needs the right broom. (*Hitch*)[12]
- ***on condition (that)*** emphasises very particularly the condition under which something will be done; the consequence often contains *can* for promise or permission, cf. 13:287):
  You can pop the question on condition that you mean it.
- **only**, cf. *except that*;
- ***or (else)*** is "virtually" synonymous in conditionals with *and* (36:934), even if it "typically follows a negative imperative clause" (cf. 36:933); yet, we can easily find counterexamples, including implied conditionals:
  Don't listen to her, or you'll end up in jail.
  Help her or she'll end up in jail.
  Say a word, and you are dead. (actual meaning: *Don't say a word!*)
  Keep your mouth shut, or you are dead.
  Your money or your life. (threat)
- ***otherwise*** may be associated with implied conditions (74:103):
  I hope you can make it, otherwise I'll have to send for the cavalry.
- ***provided (that)*** expresses "limitation or restriction in the condition under which the action will be performed" (13:277):
  Jane will return home safe and sound provided that there is air support.
- **providing** or providing that:
  Jane will accomplish the mission providing that she has enough ammo.
- ***Say*** may mean 'Let's suppose…' when it is in fact an elliptical structure starting the sentence:
  Say three hours is enough to reach the destination.
- ***since*** (introducing explanation):
  Since you are here, there must be some explanation…
- ***so long as*** is less formal than *provided (that)* and *providing (that)*, although similar in meaning (cf. 36:1093);
- ***suppose (that)*** comes close in meaning to 'What if…?', 'What would happen if…?', used in questions asking for contingency or implied conditions (74:103):
  Suppose she returned home earlier. How would you react?
  Suppose you knew about the incident, would you report it?
- ***supposing (that)*** is similar in meaning to *suppose*, and they may be used to start an inquiry, an invitation, but even impatience or scepticism (cf. 36:842);
- ***unless*** is often explained as meaning 'if not', although they are not always interchangeable (76:144), especially in type III conditionals (cf. 5.4.3.); *unless* expresses "greater focus on the conditions as an exception" (36:1093), but it is

[12] http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0386588/quotes, 03. 08. 2017.

also used to introduce an additional comment or afterthought, especially in spoken English (cf. 37:752); however, unreal conditional sentences, emotions, questions tend to use *if not* (35:202):
You'll be expelled – unless you can explain your behaviour, of course.

- ***What if*** is similar in meaning with 'Let's suppose', and it is used in questions, referring to contingency:
What if they don't pay us in time?
- ***whether (… or not …)*** is preferred over *if* in certain situations:[13]

a) after formal style nouns or verbs such as *advise / advice, consider, debate, discuss(ion), doubt, question*:
John asked for Jane's advice whether to begin the attack or wait for backup.
There's a fierce debate in the Senate as to whether kidnappers are to negotiate with or not.

b) in formal questions referring to two alternatives:
Jane should help decide whether John can begin the attack or wait for backup.

c) before *to*-infinitives, fronted indirect questions and after prepositions:
John couldn't decide whether to attack or wait for backup at dawn.
Whether you like it or not, you should finish your meal.

d) still, there is little difference in meaning between *whether* and *if* in indirect questions (41:610):
I don't know whether I can help you (or not).
I don't know if I can help you.

e) in a clause acting as a subject or complement:
Whether students will pass the exam or not is the deepest secret until Monday.
The good question is whether the colonel was aware of the imminent danger.

- ***why*** is also used after conditional clauses, which is rather informal, especially in AE; however, it is a "more emphatic conjunct than *then*" (36:819), leading to resultatives (4:439):
If the colonel wants John to return, Jane can't understand why he must continue the fight.
If John is so stubborn, why did the colonel choose him for the mission?
If the mission is cancelled, why not return to the base camp?

5.4. Types

We have seen that the concept of conditional is connected to two propositions, one of them introduced by a logical connector (*if* or one of its synonyms), while we suppose a necessary and sufficient condition between them (causality), although this may be true or false. However, **grammar** books introduce new concepts, such as **possibility** or **imaginary**, and tend to focus on only three possible conditional constructions:

> … the contrasting system of actual states, real possibilities and hypothetical states is all relative to the status of the discourse. Hence, the same tripartite division of conditionals applies equally to factual or fictional discourse. There are even conditionals that bridge the gap from the fictional to the real. (91:66–67)

This 'gap' may be the previously mentioned continuum, as conditionals express "modal, non-factual contexts" (77:279) or hypothetical situations in which we can differentiate

[13] Cf. 35:202, 41:610.

'degrees' regarding the "probability of realisation", especially the protasis (92:88). This is manifested through the verb forms (tenses) used in these constructions. At morphological level we talk about **conditional** tenses (33:195), referring to the:

1. **present**: ***would, should*** followed by **I.** verb form:
   Jane would enjoy a rest.

2. **past**: ***would, should*** followed by ***have* + III.** verb form:
   Jane would have enjoyed a rest.

However, these constructions are often 'completed' with another structure introduced by *if*, and the combination is referred to as a **conditional sentence** (33:196). Specialized literature discusses either *if*-clauses or conditional sentences, focusing on the three types mentioned before, although further structures may be added easily (cf. 'zero' conditional or 'mixed' types). However, the terms are not satisfactory, which we are going to discuss in the following sections.

It has been also mentioned that the conditional clause tends to start the sentence, but this is not a strict rule (cf. 37:747), as there is "no change in meaning" only a "slight change in emphasis" (39:89).

Language learners are most likely to meet three common structures, referred to as conditional sentences **Type I, II** and **III** (cf. 50:35), but it is important to note from the outset that "there are many more possibilities than those frequently presented in language teaching textbooks." (75:149). A sobering presentation of further options is the following (highlighted words by A. I.):

> **Simple** conditionals refer to events in the real world and include **present**, **past**, **generic** and **predictive** conditionals. Present conditionals refer to events taking place at the time of the utterance; past conditionals refer to events which may have taken place; generics are statements of **timeless** dependencies; they can be paraphrased by whenever and occur in a variety of tenses; and predictives forecast the occurrence of some event in the future. The **imaginative** conditionals reflect some notion of irrealis, and they include **hypotheticals** and **counterfactuals**. … Morphologically, the simple conditionals use the indicative mood whereas the imaginatives use the conditional, signalled by would, in the consequent. (95:312)

The quotation reflects how problematic the terminology is regarding conditionals: 'simple' conditionals are not discussed elsewhere, while 'present' and 'generic' may overlap: one term refers to the form (using Present Simple), and the other one refers to the meaning (timeless statement). Not to mention that 'past' conditional is rather misleading, as it expresses causality rather than conditionality:

If *John* ***accomplished*** *the mission, he* ***left*** *the country.*

This may be one of the reasons why conditionals are introduced to language learners "at a relatively late stage" (75:149), although they are highly important in effective communication. To avoid the complexity of terminology, we will introduce them as **Type I, II** and **III** (most rooted terms in grammar books), anticipating that we will suggest abbreviations as these terms are not satisfactory either.

5.4.1. Type I

Conditional sentence **type I** is relatively 'simple', as it combines Present Simple in the *if*-clause and Future Simple in the main clause; however, the present form in the *if*-clause does not express 'present' time, but a real, probable or possible condition or situation (27:33, 35:198, 54:162), so it can refer to possibilities:

***If** John **buys** flowers for Jane, she **will give** him a smile.*
IF I. + WILL I.
IF ① + ⑨

Table 72. Conditional Type I

Many terms refer to this type: "future real" (78:151), simple future "predictive" or "casual conditional",[14] as the situation "is true" (cf. type I refers to "actual states", 91:65) or "may become true" (35:198).

This type of conditional signals that chances to become true are anywhere between 50 – 100% ("quite probable" 33:196), reflected by the choice of tenses; *will* expresses that the speaker takes it as "psychologically immediate" and "inevitable" at the moment of speaking (75:122).

It is also important to note that the subordinate clause may be translated into other languages with future time, but English takes no future tense in subordinate clauses; however, *will* may appear in the conditional clause, which also signals that it is a modal verb and not the auxiliary for future.

Conditional sentence type I is close to temporal clauses, and if may be easily replaced by a time connector:

***After** / **When** John finishes the drills, he **will take** a shower.*

Although temporal and conditional clauses may overlap, the may considerably differ (*if* tends to be baleful combined with the verb meaning):

***If** John **survives** the mission, he **will celebrate**. (He might not survive it.)*
***If** / **After** John **returns** home, we **will open** a bottle of champagne.*

A further difference is that temporal clauses should turn true with the passing of time (the truth values is but a matter of time), while this is not the case with conditionals. Certainty is only associated with type **III** conditionals (unfulfilled conditions, detailed in 5.4.3.).

Any change in the verb phrases of conditional type I (either clauses) will result in different meanings, leading to further sections:

- *will* may not be present in the main clause, discussed as the **zero conditional** (5.4.5.);
- *will* may be present in the subordinate conditional clause;
- *should* may be used in type I, leading to a sense a doubt, and "the inverted forms are the more literary" (76:153):
  ***If** you **should** see Jane, try not to impress her.*
  ***Should** you see Jane, try not to impress her.*

Although *will* (or *shall*) is often associated with future time, it is also connected to an (often implicit) conditionality, resulting in an expectation of fulfilment (78:138); the fact that other modals may also be used in the main clause, makes it necessary to discuss them separately.

[14] 78:170, 97:288.

5.4.2. Type II

We can distinguish real and unreal conditions; while type I mainly expresses real ones (or open), **type II** is associated with unreal, hypothetical, imaginary, not true, contrary to fact or remote conditions,[15] expressing doubt about the truth of the proposition of the *if*-clause or inviting us "to consider, not the actual … but a hypothetical alternative" (91:66).

These hypothetical conditions have been further labelled as 'closed', 'rejected', 'non-factual', 'counter-factual', and 'marked' conditions, as they convey "the speaker's belief that the condition will not be fulfilled (for future conditions), is not fulfilled (for present conditions), or was not fulfilled" (36:1092), because **hypothetical** means "true in certain circumstances, not those currently prevailing" (75:122).

Grammar books refer to this type as expressing improbable, unlikely conditions, but even "real possibilities" (91:65) or "future unreal" (78:171), although "unreality and its relation to conditionality is a difficult problem" (78:44).

The **standard form** of type II typically requires the II. verb form in the *if*-clause, although its meaning is 'conditional' present or future, and non-native speakers struggle hard to understand that the II. verb form combined with *if* does not refer to the past, as up to this stage whenever a II. verb form was used it expressed past time.[16] An important remark is that the II. verb form headed by *if* expresses the "attitude of the speaker towards the condition; it does not represent time, which is indicated (if at all) by other elements in the context or situation" (39:93).

The standard form of type II typically requires *would* in the main clause, although other modal verbs are also possible (see 5.4.6.):

***If** John **bought** flowers for Jane, she **would give** him a smile.*
IF II. + WOULD I.
IF ⑤ + WOULD ①

Table 73. Conditional Type II

The table clearly shows that greater hypotheticality leads to 'backshift' in tenses,[17] as we have used the I. verb form used in type I.

While grammar books refer to this as using the 'past simple tense' in the conditional clause and the 'past form' of *will* (*would*) with future time reference (cf. 92:92), this approach is confusing, as neither the II. verb form nor *would* has anything to do with the past time in this structure. However, not all II. verb forms preceded by *if* are to be interpreted as conditionals, proving the utmost importance of context-based meaning:

> ***If** they **stopped** digging, they left the site, I'm sure.*

In this case we can see that the *if*-clause meets the formal requirements, but the meaning indicates that it is closer to temporal clauses (past time reference).

The time referred to in conditional clauses is now or any time from now on (future), and the situation is unreal. They are not based on fact (hence non-factual), especially that future time indicators perfectly fit into the sentence:

> ***If** John **bought** flowers for Jane tomorrow, she **would know** that the next mission is coming.*

[15] 27:33, 30:169, 57:169, 87:46–47.

[16] Although it has been also referred to as 'modal past tense' (77:250), we consider the term unnecessarily confusing.

[17] 36:1010, 46:340.

As for *would*, it is a mistake to consider it 'the' conditional auxiliary (cf. 75:149–150), as – similarly to *will* – it is a modal verb, and its use is not an automatic indicator of conditionals (cf. politeness**Error! Bookmark not defined.** and conditionals in 5.6.2.):

***Would** you like to meet Jane?*

Questions of this type (*Would you …?*) are associated with "polite forms", but it is more than that, especially when we contrast it with *Do you…?* in order to see the remote attitude of the speaker (cf. 75:122–123).

Nevertheless, *would* is the "most commonly used" modal verb in conditionals, and it refers to a "hypothetical implication, without necessarily any other modal implications" (36:1010). Thus it does not refer to the past, as it is a modal verb, and – compared to *will* – it expresses a more remote situation from truth (tentative or hypothetical would, amply discussed in 7.3.16.).

When using *would* in conditional sentences, "the speaker creates a hypothetical quality to the situation and, in doing so, automatically distances himself from the factual quality of the statement" (75:122), thus combining the notions of 'inevitability' associated with *will* and (psychologically) 'remote', thus hypothetical (75:123). The way it is to be taken true is encoded in the subordinate clause marked by multitude of conditional connectors.

This leads us to conclude that *would* – as a modal verb – has multiple functions, including both conditional an expressing politeness, not to mention its previously discussed possibilities in storytelling (cf. 3.5.). It has been noted that *would* is "clearly the tentative form of *will*" and this "also accounts for the tentativeness as a kind of conditional" (78:58).

The meaning of type II conditionals is rich, due to the nature of hypotheticality, as – although sometimes subjectively – degrees may be differentiated. We have seen that the II. verb headed by *if* (or a synonymous word) indicates remoteness or unreality (cf. 54:166), but there is a scale with at least three grades (cf. 39:93):

1. **tentative**, possible, probable, suppositional, polite or unreal past (cf. 54:179), being close to type I conditional, when the speaker thinks there is a 50–100% chance; the choice between type I or II "often depends on how possible we believe an event to be" (44:168–169):
   If John plucked the chicken, Jane would / could / might be delighted.

2. **hypothetical**, improbable, imaginary or unlikely, when the speakers "don't expect the action to take place" (33:199) or are unlikely to happen (44:168); however, this may express a kind of hope (cf. 'remote conditionals', 87:1003), as it "is a form of day-dreaming in which we all indulge at times" (39:93); it is felt closer to impossible, thus the speaker may use it when 0–50% chance is felt; it has been suggested that the "present and future reference the meaning may be merely one of negative expectation or assumption, the positive not being ruled out completely" (36:1010):
   If John won the lottery, he would still preserve his job.
   If the colonel changed his attitude, he would be promoted.
   (He probably won't, cf. 36:1092)
   The Does would call HQ soon provided they didn't face difficulties.

Certain constructions belong to this type of conditional:

a) a rather **imaginary, suggestive, polite** (e.g. ask for help) meaning is expressed by the ***If … were (to)*** construction[18] expressing **greater improbability** (76:153), where *were* signals the Subjunctive Mood, although it may be concessive as well:
If you were to be the CEO of Apple Inc., what would you do?
Jane would hold her position, even if she were to be left behind.
If you were in my shoes, how would you tackle the problem?

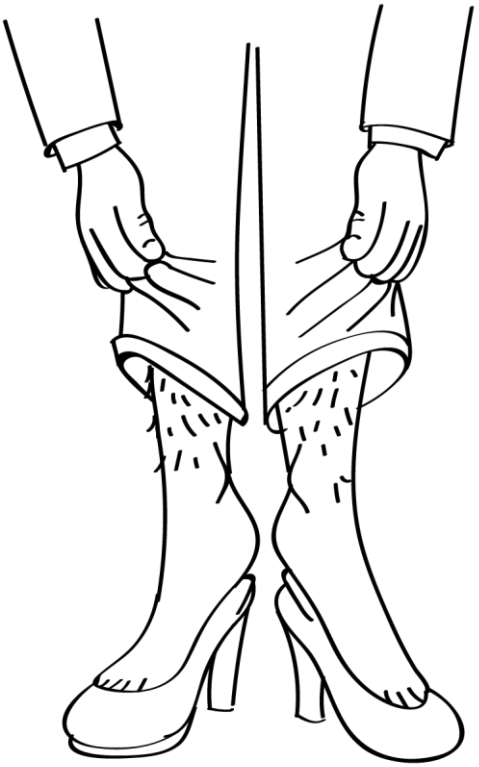

Illustration 34. If you were in my shoes

- negative form (with inversion) is only possible when the full sentence is used:
Were it not for Jane's will power, the mission would fail.

b) a **highly improbable** supposition is rendered by the ***If you should*** construction:
If you should become the CEO of Apple Inc., would you remember me?

- desires, regrets, polite requests, suggestions, giving advice (44:168–169) may belong here, as they are less direct (67:155); still, depending on the speaker or situation, they can be listed under the next option:
If we were in Italy, we would order a pizza.
If you stopped over there, I could show you my house.
Would you be able to make it by Friday?

3. **unreal**, totally imaginary, so contrary to present or known facts;[19] thus there is a certain "expectation that the condition will not be fulfilled" (29:747) or

[18] 35:200, 40:279.
[19] 13:300, 39:93, 44:168, 67:154.

"impossible to fulfil the condition" (44:168–169); in these cases the sentence "automatically suggests" the contrary of the conditional statement (75:71):
If l knew where they are, I would tell you. (but I don't know)
If you met a dragon, would you be scared?
(however, children may visualize it as possible)
If the colonel accepted her argument, they would attack at dawn.

Similar situations may be constructed with the help of the previously ***discussed If … were*** or ***If … was*** (13:300):

If Jane were here, you would be in trouble.
(but she is not here, so you are not in trouble)
If you were smarter, you would understand the pun.
If I were thinner, I would eat all the cake.

Although the past forms of *be* are *was* and *were*, only *were* is used in grammatically 'well-formed' conditional clauses. This structure is further supported by certain stock phrases (*If I were you …, If I were in your shoes...*), although *was* is common in colloquial speech (30:174); thus, we would not recommend its use before language examinations.

Yet, there are cases when *was* is fully justified (signalling temporal rather than conditional senses):

If he was there, he must have seen what happened to their leader.
If Jane was at home, the neighbours did not know about it.
("what was always true", 26:41)

At this stage it is clear that conditional type I (**open**) and type II (**remote**) differ formally (I. verb form versus 'back shifted' or 'remote' II. verb form), but their meanings are rather close as neither of them is related to time (67:154). Instead, we have to deal with more and less possible and probable cases, reaching the unreal or imaginary in the case of type II.

It is also worth mentioning that "there is no difference in the truth conditions of the two sorts of conditional when they refer to future events",[20] as there is no temporal difference between them (68:158):

- real condition, normal course of events (repeated actions, habits, general truths, etc.):
  If you are a doctor, care for the people you treat.
  If Shrek decorates the house, something will go wrong.
- imaginary condition, unusual circumstances:
  If you were a doctor, would you help them?
  If Shrek decorated the tree, he would clip floating toads to the branches, inflated with his rancid breath.

There are reasons to consider type II conditionals as **open**, because the question whether they are "fulfilled" (87:46–47) or not is "unresolved" (39:90). Open conditions have also been called as 'real', 'factual' and 'neutral' conditions; in these cases, even the protasis may contain *will* (92:91):

If John grabs his knife, the thugs will run away.
If John grabbed his knife, the thugs would run away. (more remote possibility)
If it won't help, it won't harm either.

[20] 91:66, 36:1091.

Thus open conditions are rather realistic (77:253), while 'remote' means that the possibility is weakened as "the fact of knowing is remote from the speaker" (75:71).

5.4.3. Type III

It is common knowledge that there is no use crying over spilt milk, and we tend to think that type III conditionals embody precisely this proverb, as they describe past and hypothetical unreal conditions, which is why it needs to be marked twice (30:170).

Definitions and explanations connected to type III are the following:

- a completely hypothetical (39:97), unreal, impossible, imaginary condition, which is impossible to happen as it was "once possible, but now imaginary event" (91:65) as the "necessary conditions were not met in the past";[21] nevertheless, it is something "wished for" (39:97); even if the known facts are different, the structure is used for nostalgia, criticism, regret, etc. (44:169):
  If Jane had wanted it to, she could have exterminated the rebels.
  If the colonel hadn't ordered it, John wouldn't have launched the attack.
- the situation is not true, contrary to a past fact[22] or the present reality, so the facts it is based on is "the opposite of what is expressed" (54:167); more technically, this is called "counterfactual" (97:288), a term that "refers normally to the consequences of acts which are not performed, and seems by this very fact to belong at the irrealis extreme" (93:257);
- the possibility of the action was true in the past but it was unfulfilled; as a consequence, we are faced with an "implied rejection of the condition" (36:1010), so there is 0% chance for it to become true, but we still "speculate about possibilities in the past that didn't happen (73:162).

The form may be deduced by analogy from type I and type II forms; as this is type III, the III. verb forms are used:

1. the subordinate conditional clause contains ***had* + III.** verb form (which is identical in form with Past Perfect Simple, see section 2.7.);

2. the main clause most typically uses would have + III. verb form:

If *John* ***had bought*** *flowers for Jane, she* ***would have given*** *him a smile.*
IF HAD III. + WOULD HAVE III.
IF ⑦ + WOULD ③

Table 74. Conditional Type III

Once again, as *would* is a modal verb, it may be replaced by other modal verbs: *could*, *might* or *should* (35:198).

The perfect forms grammatically ensure us that the action is consumed (hence it is unreal or imagined in the past), so we can express criticism, regret (44:169) or daydreaming about past events (cf. bridging "the gap from the fictional to the real", 91:66–67):

If you had listened to me, you would have been ready by now.
If we had met yesterday, I would have told you the news.
If Jane had seen the thugs, she could have avoided them.
If Shrek hadn't met Donkey, he would have been killed by Dragon.

[21] http://www.usingenglish.com/glossary/mixed-conditionals.html, 17. 01. 2017.
[22] Cf. 13:316, 57:179. An unnecessarily confusing term we would not recommend to use is 'past unreal' (78:171).

If Dragon hadn't liked Donkey, they wouldn't have had Dronkeys.

5.4.4. Hypothesizing and Conditionals

As mentioned before, the real difference between conditional structures lies in their degree of hypotheticality (68:158), associated with probability, impossibility, imaginary, etc. Some of them are real in the sense that they may be fulfilled, while others not:

If I met the Prime Minister, I would ask for an autograph.
If I were a ghost, I would haunt politicians.

We have also seen that the II. verb forms have little to do with past meanings (38:125), and – similarly to *would* – they refer to the present or future time, while only perfective constructions (*have / has* followed by III. verb forms) refer to past time (cf. 15:36.).

Either past, present or future reference, they are often **tentative** (39:93–99), expressing daydreaming, longing or wish for a different state of events, without caring too much about the possibility of realisation, although certain structures reflect a highly reduced degree of probability (*If I were you, If you were to, If you should, Should you…*, cf. 13:300).

Ultimately, hypotheticality is a modal option, thus conditional structures are all non-factual (77:279) and also make use of the majority of modal verbs (39:97), making it necessary to discuss special cases without modal verbs (cf. zero conditional in the next section) or alternatives to will and would (5.4.6.).

5.4.5. Zero conditional

Although main clauses of conditional sentences typically contain will or another modal verb, it may happen that no modal verb is included, resulting in **zero conditional**. We can distinguish two types, a 'general' one and an 'imperative' one.

5.4.5.1. 'General' conditional

General or **real conditionals** (37:749) may be used to express statements of universal truths ("what is always true", 26:41), habits, routines or general validity,[23] scientific facts (54:117), things that generally happen or "likely to happen" (37:749), knowing that *if* may be replaced by *when(ever)*. Thus it refers to a general time (now or always), being a sub-type of conditional type I (after all, these conditions are always real or possible).

However, this combined temporal and conditional use results in a multitude of possibilities regarding the use of tenses, depending on the speaker's option:

1. habitual actions (13:282):
   If the Does are at home, they live like the other people.

2. habitual action accompanied by a durative one (16:314):
   I only yawn if it is raining.

3. statements of universal truth (13:282), called real conditionals (37:749):
   If there's plenty of food, everybody is happy.

4. (scientific) facts or generics (97:288):
   If you smoke, you are at risk for lung cancer.
   If you press the button, the door opens / will open. ('generic' present)

[23] 73:136, 39:89, 45:120.

5. opinion or comments on the circumstances under which the information given is important (97:288):
   If you're professional, you know what to do now.
   If you really want to, you can get through any obstacle in life.
   If you really want to be successful, you need to / must set a goal in life.

- however, it is worth noticing that this opinion may be converted to remote, expressing 'distancing' from fact, which results in doubt or irony (polite denial):
  If you were professional, you would know what to do.
  Were you professional, …

Other than I. verb forms may also appear in formal *if*-clauses, leading to the conclusion that there are "no special restrictions on the time reference of conditions" (48:271):

1. result or completion, signalled by Present Perfect in the *if*-clause (26:42):
   If you have ever loved, you understand what I'm talking about.

2. the subordinate clause may contain II. verb form, which combined with Present Simple or Future Simple in the main clause results in a cause–effect meaning with reduced conditional meaning:
   If you paid no attention, you have no idea what to do.
   If John contacted the HQ before dawn, he will launch soon.

3. *if* may be used with Past Tense, when storytelling overshadows the conditional meaning (cf. 36:1091):
   If the Does lost track, they started all over again.
   If John was tired, then Jane always tried to be the first watch.

4. further past tenses for storytelling (including continuous ones) may be used in the formally *if*-clause:
   If Jane had lost control, John helped her out. (*if* ~ 'whenever'; If ⑦ + ⑤)
   If Shrek was fighting, Donkey always tried to help him. (If ⑥ + ⑤)
   If the victim were pressing charges, the driver would be in real trouble.

5.4.5.2. Imperative conditional

There are two possibilities to formulate imperative conditionals:

1. the subordinate clause is conditional, and the main clause takes the form of an imperative to express certain speech acts, such as suggestion, order, advice, instruction or warning:[24]
   If you have a pencil, jot down this address.
   If you are alone, call a friend.
   If you touch that button, run!

2. the subordinate clause is replaced by an imperative, expressing similar speech acts; imperatives "convey more urgency than the *if*-clause" (40:276), and "imperative clauses joined by and or *or* to a following clause may have a conditional implication";[25] the omission of *if* is colloquial:

[24] 13:284, 37:750, 39:90, 54:117.
[25] 36:832, 37:755, 52:171.

- comments and advice:[26]
  Talk firmly and you'll impress them. (~ If you talk firmly, ...)
  Grab a bite or you'll remain hungry. (~ If you don't grab a bite, …)
  Talk less and you'll be wiser.
- command or request (40:276), although there are politer versions (18:107):
  Ask the colonel if he's planning to start another mission.
  Give us some food and we'll leave in peace.
  Do you mind if I ask you to fetch a glass of water?
- promise:
  Listen to me and you'll be a happy man.
  Don't sing and I'll buy you an ice-cream.
  Buy two pairs of shoes and get one pair for free.
  Come in and we'll talk it over.
- threat, when the positive imperative expresses a "stronger expectation of the hearer's readiness" to act, 37:755):
  Stop lying or you won't get out of here alive. (~ If you don't stop lying, …)
  Break that vase and Jane will break your neck. (~ If you break that vase, …)
- warning,[27] also in the form of reduced conditionals:
  Drop your weapons or we'll open fire. (implicitly negative condition)
  Do it and I'll call the cops.
  Don't panic if you see me. (order)
  Don't panic if alone. (reduced)
  Give him enough rope and he'll hang himself. (proverb)
  Don't give up now or you risk losing everything.

5.4.6. Modal verbs in the if-clause

We have seen that type I, II and III conditionals make use of *will* and *would* in the main clause, which are modal verbs. We have already mentioned that other modal verbs may also be present in the main clause[28] (apodosis), as "modality itself is in some ways conditional" (78:182) as "the modal refers to the assumed predictability of a situation" (36:1008):

- *will* may have a "habitual predictive meaning" (36:228), which is in fact connected to its central function of 'inevitability':
  If the Does return home, they will celebrate (as usual).
- modal meanings (power, volition, etc.) are often blended with the conditional meaning (78:139–140) to such extent that the sub-clause is often 'reduced' (see 5.6.):
  John will sharpen his knife (if he is getting ready for the next mission).
- generic conditionals may contain should:
  If John wants to survive, he should ask for Jane's support.
- *could* and *couldn't* – while they indicate both tentative and conditional meaning – are often express something unfinished, being referred to as "incomplete" conditionals (78:100), detailed in 5.6.:
  You could reach the stars (if you wanted to).
  We could be living happily (if you weren't / wouldn't be complaining all the time).
  If you knew how to open the safe, we could be rich overnight.

[26] 13:284, 40:276, 73:208, noted as colloquial in 4:438.
[27] 36:832, 52:231.
[28] Some grammar books even discuss conditional mood, which is fact only the main clause of a conditional sentence, without the subordinate conditional clause (cf. 23:432–439, then 23:480–491).

- *could* expresses criticism or regret in type III conditionals (44:169):
  You could have made it, if you had focused harder.
- obligational *should* (36:1011) is identified in the following case:
  If Jane had asked for help, you should have accompanied her.
  If the guests arrived, you shouldn't be lying on the couch.
- other modal verbs will similarly combine their central meanings (cf. 5.4.6. and Chapter 7) with the conditional one:
  If you want me to, I may / might / can / could help you.
  If the colonel gives the signal, John must / has to / should / ought to deploy the attack immediately.

The other side of the coin is that conditionals refer to hypothetical possibilities (cf. 5.4.4.), thus "*if*-clauses in fact create modal, non-factual contexts" (77:279). In fact, it is suspected that "the modality of the conditional allows the speaker to appear less dogmatic or intrusive" compared to a non-conditional form (98:8), typically observed in 'formulaic' introductions:

I thought you might want to hear this.

More interesting cases are the ones when modal verb are present in the *if*-clause – even if they may be considered a 'minor' type (3:139) –, exemplified below:

1. ***will*** (or *shall*) is often associated with future time, but it is also connected to an (often implicit) conditionality, resulting in "an expectation of fulfilment" (78:138); when used in the sub-clause, it expresses volition, power or a persistent activity:[29]

- if *will* is stressed, it expresses insistence (41:237):
  If John 'will buy flowers for Rose, Jane will divorce.
- *will* may express volition (36:1008–1009):
  If you'll tell me the truth, I'll let you go.
  If you won't tell us the truth, we'll have to sue you.
  If you'll need it, you can take it.
- *will* may express "timeless and habitual prediction" (36:1008–1009):
  If people will be scared of Shrek, they should be afraid of Fiona too.
- *will* expresses metaphorical refusal of "inanimate objects" (36:1008–1009):
  If the door won't open, it must be locked form the inside.
- the *if*-clause with will refers to a result and not a condition,[30] thus the "normal time and cause relations between the clauses is reversed" (78:178):
  I will talk to Jane if it'll help to clarify the situation.
- the weakened condition may lead to emphasised politeness:
  Sir, if you will wait a moment, I will get the colonel on the phone.
- *will* also expresses requests:
  If you will listen to my arguments, we'll settle the deal.
- further examples:
  If we won't reach the top today, why should we hurry?
  If John won't be in Neverland, you'd better abandon the mission.
  If Jane will insist on starting the attack, John's not going to like it.

[29] 30:177–179, 78:177. Palmer also discusses an interesting contrast with and without *will* in the sub-clause: *If it leaves him destitute, I'll change my will.* (to help him), and *If it'll leave him destitute, I'll change my will.* (to cause him trouble), cf. 30:178.

[30] 35:200, 41:237.

If it'll make you happy, I swear I have never seen that man!
If Jane will enter the game, the colonel's position is secure. ('power')

2. ***would*** is the most common modal in conditional clauses with contrary-to-fact sense (57:169) and hypothetical implication (36:1010), as its basic meaning (cf. 7.3.16.) is connected to explicit conditions (75:122–123); its major uses are summarised in two points:
- willingness, making the suggestion sounding politer (e.g. request, cf. 34:74), tentative volition or formal than using *will*:[31]
  I'd be happy if you would listen to me just this once.
  If you would listen to me just this one, we would succeed in winning the game.
  If you would read your e-mails, you wouldn't have missed the wedding.
- the weakened condition results in emphasised politeness:
  If you wouldn't mind waiting, I could make you an omelette.
  If you would be so kind as to wait until Friday, we might offer you a discount.
  Shall I bring you some coffee? Yes, please, if you would.

3. ***should*** may also appear in conditional clauses (87:188):
- it expresses highly improbable – although possible – suppositions,[32] which may turn 'obligational' (36:234, 1011):
  If there were casualties, the Does should have to report it.
  If you should meet John, tell him the colonel needs him.
- a similar expression is 'If … happen to', and they may be combined:
  If they happen to find us, we will have to kill them,
  If you should happen to think about marriage, forget about it.

4. ***can*** is used in the *if*-clause in its basic senses (77:293):
- to express possibility:
  If you can sort it out, do it.
- to express permission:
  If you can leave, I don't understand why you are still here.

5. ***could*** may well display a multitude of meanings in conditional clauses: past, formal, hypothetical (unreal), tentative and polite,[33] associated with 'incomplete' conditionals:
- it is hardly possible to distinguish the tentative and the unreal conditional meaning:
  If you could drive a truck, you would be hired instantly.
  If I could just have a glance at the baby, please. (over-polite, begging)
  If you could talk to John personally, he might change his mind.

6. ***may*** and ***might*** rarely appear in conditionals, although *might* bears similar meanings to could (past, formal, hypothetical / unreal, tentative and polite, cf. 28:176):
- so-called 'indirect' conditions (36:1089) express politeness or even lecturing (if used ironically):
  If I may, I can show its proper use.

[31] 28:205, 67:155, 36:233, 36:1011.
[32] 35:200, 65:178, 41:237.
[33] 78:45–46, 28:176–179

If I may say so, you look fabulous.
If I might say a word, I would recommend the blue one.

7. ***must*** is also used in conditional clauses:

- its basic meaning – obligation – is preserved (28:65), although we sense irritation combined with *if*:
  If Shrek must rescue Fiona, there must be a reason for that, not even knowing her.
  If you must complain about the circumstances, you are not prepared for the real challenge.

5.4.7. 'Mixed' conditionals

The term **mixed conditionals**, however vague and unnecessary, is deeply rooted in grammar books. It refers to the fact that the previously discussed type I, II and III conditional clauses may be 'mixed', resulting in almost any combination (cf. 47:89).

Yet, we would not call them 'mixed', as this is a natural possibility, also having in mind that *will* and *would* may be substituted by other modals[34] as well (cf. all modal verbs contain both present and future time reference).[35] While the three most common types of conditionals are referred to as **probable** (*shall, will*), **improbable** (*should, would* + I.) and **impossible** condition (*should, would* + *have* + III., 3:136–141), their combinations have no particular terms:

IF	**I.**	**+**	any **modal** + **I.** [probable]
	II.		any **remote modal** + **I.** [improbable]
	***had* III.**		any modal + ***have*** + **III.** [impossible]

Table 75. Possible conditional structures

If we accept that "the apodosis of an unreal conditional, future or past, must contain a modal verb" (30:172), multiple variations are possible for type II and type III conditionals, which may be further varied that continuous tenses may well appear in conditionals, leading to a multitude of 'mixed' conditionals:[36]

If you are free on Saturday, we could go to the spa.
If the colonel knows the Does so well, then he should have known their next move.
If John is as trained as rumoured, he would have become a four-star general.
If you meet the Does tonight, I wouldn't ask them anything about their mission.
If Jane had already been to Rome, now she wouldn't be wishing to visit it.
If you paid attention, you would have avoided that cul-de-sac.
If you knew how much this will cost you…
If John is sharpening his knife, you must not ask him anything.
If John was sharpening his knife then, he must have had a reason.
If it was raining, the crop would be better.
If Jane was to meet her destiny, John couldn't have done anything about it.
If you have been trying to understand this way of life for a decade, then you should be doing something else instead.
If you received $50,000 for the house, where is the money?
If you received $50,000 for the house, they didn't know its real value.
If you received $50,000 for the house, the IRS would have known about it.
If you have finished cooking, you can have a rest.
(cf. temporal clauses: 'Once you have finished….')

[34] The term 'remote' modal refers to *could, would, should* and *might* in the table.
[35] 30:138, 75:100.
[36] Cf. 47:85–86, 15:188.

If he had been in Paris, then I'm sure he saw the Eiffel Tower.
If Jane had ever kissed the President, then I'm the Pope.

Illustration 35. If ... then I'm the Pope.

The conclusion we have drawn is that the context determines the choice of verb phrase (tense), thus any meaningful combination is a valid option: "there are no restrictions on the tense of either, though there are certain preferred combinations of tense, and the choice of tense may determine the interpretation" (30:168–169).

This is rather alarming, as the interpretation of conditionals is connected to all the tenses discussed in Chapter 2 (temporal aspect) and modal verbs**Error! Bookmark not defined.** discussed in Chapter 7 (modal, tentative, polite, etc. meanings), which is completed with specific forms (cf. 5.5.) and further specific meanings (cf. 5.6.).

To sum up, we can say that these three types offer the most typical conditional situations: type I refers to present or future possibilities, type II expresses tentative or more hypothetical present, while type III describes an unfulfilled past condition (cf. 'nostalgia' associated with *would*, 75:121), summarised below:

	I.,		WILL I.
IF	II.,	+	WOULD I.
	HAD + III.,		WOULD HAVE III.

Table 76. Most common[37] conditional verb forms

[37] It is important to remember that continuous forms may also be used in conditionals; similarly, any modal verb may complete the I. verb form in the *if*-clause, and any remote modal verb + II. verb form may be

Similarly, our version displays this with the help of previously described tenses:[38]

	①,		WILL ①
IF	⑤,	+	WOULD ①
	⑦,		WOULD ③

Table 77. Most common conditional tenses

A comma separates the two clauses in case the *if*-clause is first, and the + sign indicates that the *if*-clause may be changed with the main clause (they are commutative, a term borrowed from mathematics):

I will only sign the document if you offer me some bonus for it.
Jane would kiss John if he brought her flowers.
The colonel would have resigned if the mission had failed.

The tables also show the 'internal' logic of conditionals: the further from factual truth, the more remote past forms we use: the *if*-clauses start with Present Simple form (50–100% chance), then turn to Past Simple form (0–50% change) and Past Perfect Simple form (0% chance).

The main clauses start with a basic modal[39] (universal 'now', cf. Chapter 7), then its remote pair ('past') is used – most typically *will* and *would* –, which is followed by either the I. form (cf. Present Simple) or the only 'tense' with 'present' form but past meaning (*have* + III., cf. Present Perfect Simple).

Although we know that these are not 'tenses' as tenses were discussed in previous chapters, they are formally similar, although with different meanings; in fact, they express real and unreal (remote) cases in the present, future and past (cf. 30:171).

Nevertheless, the tables above are only the 'tip of the iceberg', as there are further tenses which may replace these 'most typical' structures; the most obvious ones are the continuous forms:

If it is raining, you will get soaked.
If you were sleeping, you would be dreaming of Jane, wouldn't you?
If you had been studying hard all year long, you wouldn't be crying now.
If we resist until 2020, we will have been living under the same roof for 25 years.
I know that if babies cry, mothers are starting to worry about it.

A rather special construction, *going to* (cf. 2.13.) may also occur in conditional sentences (36:215), as "there is nothing to prevent be going to being used in the protasis", leading to the conclusion that "it is not a simple future time marker, but a present-tense form" (30:171); we might add that it can also appear in the main clause, too (26:42, 58:351):

If you are going to use that gun, you'll regret it for the rest of your life.
If it's not going to rain, why bother about a mac?
If the colonel is thinking about a new Blitzkrieg, he's not gonna get it.
If you keep talking like that, John's going to shoot you.
If the unemployment persists, there's going to be a drop in prices.

used instead of II. verb form. *Will* and *would* in the main clause stand for all modal verbs and remote modal forms, respectively.

[38] In fact, WILL ① is ⑨, but this way we tend to think, the 'backshift' is more visible.

[39] Basic modals are *can, may, will*, and *shall*; remote modals are *could, might, would, should*; *must* may be both basic and remote; further details are to be found in Chapter 7.

As for the main clause and subordinate clause, we have already mentioned that *will* and *would* may be replaced by other modal verbs as well (detailed in 5.4.6.):

If Jane is at home, she may / could / might / should help you.
If you would be so kind, please listen to me just this once.
If you could make it in time, I would be glad.

This is why language learners need a gradual understanding of conditionals, ultimately reaching the conclusion that virtually any verb form and tense may be combined with any other one in any clause (cf. 5.4.6.); the only really important thing to follow is meaning, deriving from the combination of *if* (or any other conditional connector, cf. 5.3.), verb form and modal verb.

5.5. Specific conditional forms

5.5.1. Negative structures

The lexical meaning of the verb may be puzzling when variants are compared:

If the colonel orders to kill everyone, John will refuse it.
If the colonel orders to kill everyone, John will refuse him.
If the colonel orders to kill everyone, John will not do that.

In the sentences above John's (re)action is negative, which may be due to the relationship between John and colonel (although unlikely, it cannot be ruled out), and the nature of the colonel's order (conscience-driven). When further sentences are examined, the specific meanings of negative conditionals may demonstrate the weak link between the two parts (cf. 89:69):

If the colonel invites John to dinner, he will not go.

The first interpretation of the sentence is that – even if invited by the colonel – John will stay away, implying that he will not be present, whatever the case. Yet, when sentences are taken out of context, may be misleading, as another interpretation is possible:

If the colonel invites John to dinner, he will not go; but if Jane invites him, he will.

Certain negative structures are typically connected to conditionals:

1. ***if it weren't, if it hadn't been for, but for***:
   If it weren't for Jane, I would be dead now. (present hypothesis)
   'But if it weren't for the sand, no one would bother about me.'
   (*Woman in the Dunes*, 01:16'53'')
   If it hadn't been for Jane, I would have been dead by now. (past hypothesis)
   But for Jane, I would have been dead by now. (~ *If it hadn't been for*)

2. ***unless*** combines *if* and *not* (meaning 'except if', 'in all circumstances except if', cf. 87:755), thus we should avoid the double negative constructions:
   This teacher will fail us, unless we learn.
   Unless you had mentioned, I would have forgotten to pop the question.

- yet it is possible to use a further negative in the subordinate clause introduced by *unless* (44:165), which demonstrates once again the importance of meaning:
  *"To form the genitive plural we add an apostrophe only (**unless** the plural does **not** end in s)" (quote from 46:549)*

*Is John going to marry Jane? **Not unless** they change jobs.*

- it is also important to know that *unless* cannot always replace the *if … not* structure, for instance when the *only-if* implicature does not apply (cf. 87:756):
  The Does are throwing an open air party on Saturday if it doesn't rain.
  If the doughnuts haven't arrived yet, we won't order any more.

Although the "implied condition is very vague" (78:174), certain negative expressions are typical in conditionals:

I wouldn't say a word (if I were you).
I wouldn't dream of a detached house in the neighbourhood (if I were you).
I wouldn't know the correct answer (if I were to answer it).
I wouldn't mind a beer or two (if we were to watch TV).

5.5.2. Interrogative structures

While we have focused so far on declarative and imperative (cf. 'zero') conditionals, interrogative ones are also possible (cf. 37:750):

If John's knife is sharp, (then) why is he still sharpening it?
("not a true conditional", 33:200)
If you had a lot of money, would you have a plan for how to spend it?
If you happen to meet Jane, would you remember me to her?
Shouldn't you be at work if it's 10 a.m.?
What if I can't solve the puzzle?
(question referring to contingency, cf. 87:132)
Would you take responsibility if we fail the plan?

5.5.3. Emphatic structures

Emphasis may be applied in the case of conditional structures as well, leading to inversion (formal change of subject and predicate):

- 'standard' conditional structures:
  If I hadn't made a mistake then, I could have been happy.
  If you should find gold in Alaska, buy me a ranch. (unexpected & unlikely)
- an alternative structure may be formulated with happen to (emphasising chance possibility, 26:43):
  If you happen to bump into gold in Alaska, could you buy me a ranch?
  If you were to meet my cousin, bring her home.

The second example is less frequent, used to emphasise the suppositional or hypothetical nature of the future condition, and a higher degree of improbability than *should*:[40]

If Jane could play the piano, John would have bought a larger house.
If I might see her once again, I wouldn't hesitate to kiss her.

- 'emphatic' conditional structures, which are less frequent and more formal, mostly met in literary and highly elevated style;[41] the **inversion** signals both emphatic and conditional meaning in the sentences below:
  Had I not made a mistake then, I could have been happy.
  Had it not been for the show, she wouldn't be smiling at all.
  Should you find gold in Alaska, buy me a ranch.
  Were you to meet my cousin, bring her home.

[40] Cf. 13:305, 30:177, 36:143.
[41] 35:200; 87:86, 96, 106; 36:1006.

Were it not for the kid, she would have slapped her husband. (~ But for the kid…)
Could Jane play the piano, John would have bought a larger house.

- *even if* is an emphatic structure by itself, and it may preserve its emphasised meaning if it is replaced by the 'emphatic' *if* structure (41:239):
  I wouldn't marry you if you were the last man in the world.

5.5.4. Stock phrases with *if*

The majority of the following constructions have been mentioned before, especially with emphatic forms, but it is worth summarising them in a separate section, listed below:

If I were you …
(totally imaginary, unreal situation speaker's advice, opinion, recommendation)[42]
If I were in your shoes…
If you were to be the President, what would you do?
(conditional ~ hypothetical ~ tentative)
If it were to rain, we would definitely return to the shelter.
If it were not for …
If it weren't for …
If it wasn't for … (~ *without*, cf. 41:238)
If it hadn't been for …
If I had been you, I would have married him.
If I had been in your position, I wouldn't have resisted that long.
But for… (~ *If it hadn't been for*, informal English, cf. 65:178)
I'd prefer it if you didn't bother her any more. (preference)

These structures are highly important for exam purposes, for instance rephrase exercises, when it is required to rephrase them including certain words (*for, but*):

If you hadn't helped me, I wouldn't have passed the exam.
If it hadn't been for your help, I wouldn't have passed the exam.
But for your help, I wouldn't have passed the exam.

5.5.5. Reduced conditionals

As the terminology is rather confusing, we would like to differentiate specific conditionals:

- **reduced** conditionals are conditional sentences in which either the *if*-clause or the main clause is reduced by omitting various grammatical categories;
- **implied** conditionals are conditional sentences in which *if* is only implied via other possibilities; nevertheless, they may be reduced conditionals as well;
- **implicit**, incomplete, covert conditionals are in fact elliptical sentences containing only the main clause (typically containing a modal verb), but with an implicit *if*-clause.

Reduced conditionals are rather varied, and they may omit the subject, the verb or it may preserve only the adjective,[43] resulting in elliptical structures:

- reduced *if*-clauses:
  If possible, listen to your instincts.
  If necessary, do whatever it takes.
  If need be, John will break the rules to accomplish his mission.
  If you don't, I will tell your mum about it.

[42] Cf. 13:300 and 13:304.
[43] Cf. 37:747, 48:272.

If in trouble, just give me a call.
If ready, shoot!
If not, then you'll end up in prison!
If called a liar, punch him in the face!
If true, you're in trouble.
The Does, if friendly, are dangerous.
(cf. concessive conditionals in 5.6.2. 'even if they behave')
If so, you are fired. (*so* is a clause substitute, cf. 37:747)
If so, I will let the colonel know about it. (if it's true what you're saying)

- reduced main clauses:
If you're listening to it, (I tell you that) it's Mozart.[44]
If you'd just open the door, Sir. (… I'd tell you a secret.)
What if nothing happens in the next two hours? (looking for contingency)

5.5.6. Implied conditionals

Implied conditionals (74:103) refer to cases when the conditional sub-clause is "not directly introduced by *if*" (40:282), but certain *if* substitutes may also function as reduced conditionals (47:92), their conditional meaning deriving from the context:

With luck, we'll get to the end of this chapter.
With a little help, John would capture the leader of the rebels.
Without John, the case is lost. ('if John is not to support us')
Once in, you couldn't get out. (Galsworthy, quoted in 48:272)
But for Jane, John wouldn't have survived.
Jane would warn John but she doesn't know his whereabouts.

Possible types are:

1. subjectless clauses (36:1091):
Come to that, John will get in trouble soon.
Please God, Jane would survive the mission.

2. gerundive or participial (reduced) conditional clauses:[45]
But for ordering the massacre, the war could have been avoided.
Judging by appearance Jane must be an intelligent woman.
Thinking logically, the Does must have a reason not to contact us.
Thought in advance, the plan should be seamless.
Given time, the Does will accomplish the mission successfully.
Assuming that Jane is ready, John should be ready as well.
Provided that you behave yourself, you can join me at the party.

3. absolute clauses form a sub-type of participial clauses (36:1090):
Time permitting, we will visit the city of Bukhara.
Weather permitting, we can cross the Channel by dinghy.
God willing their marriage will last long.

[44] This has a rather complicated explanation: "it is the giving of the information contained in the proposition in the apodosis, not the proposition itself, that is dependent on the proposition in the protasis. There is a kind of ellipsis here" (30:176).
[45] Cf. 48:272, 74:103.

4. infinitive clauses:[46]
   You must be happy to see that the investment was not in vain.
   Jane would be a fool not to wait for the backup.
   To watch him play, you'd think he's a pro.

5. verbless clauses (cf. 36:1091):
   One more word and I'll kill you.
   Two more minutes and they should show up.
   Another such remark and you would have been dead.

6. stock phrases may have verbless structures in both clauses (36:1091), reduced from imperative structures connected with or:
   Stop whining or they'll discover us. (imperative conditional)
   Your money or your life. (threat)
   Trick or treat!

5.5.7. Conditionals in Reported Speech

It is important to note that type I conditional may change after the reporting verb in reported speech;[47] this may be due to the fact that type I is close to temporal clauses, heavily affected by reported speech.

However, there is no change in tense in type II or III conditionals, as unreal conditions are hardly affected by time (especially when situations are conceived of as hypothetical and timeless):

Type I

If you bring me the phone, I'll order a pizza.
John promised that if Jane brought him the phone, he would order a pizza.

Type II

If Jane called John, he would come instantly.
The colonel knew that if Jane were to call John, he would come instantly.
The colonel knew that if Jane called John, he would come instantly.
(if the condition is still valid)
The colonel knew that if Jane had called John, he would have come instantly.
(if the condition is consumed)

Type III

If the thugs had been twice as many, they would have had a chance.
The Does realised that if the thugs had been twice as many, they would have had a chance.

5.6. Specific meanings

5.6.1. Rhetorical conditional clauses

The truth value of conditionals is mainly connected to logic, so grammar books 'conceal' it under the term **rhetorical conditionals**, which "give the appearance of expressing an

[46] Cf. 36:1091, 48:272.
[47] Cf. 13:328, 39:103; "tenses change in the usual way", 33:205.

open condition, but (like rhetorical questions) they actually make a strong assertion" (36:1094):

- if either the main clause or the conditional clause is false ("patently absurd" 36:1094), we are faced with a rhetorical conditional:
  You are not you if don't show them what you are capable of.
  (cf. the *Snickers* campaign: '*You're not you when you're hungry*.')
  I'll be damned if I accept it.
  I'll be hanged if they realise the trick.
  Jane's nothing if not tough. (cf. *This is anything but merciful*.)
  That intel must be worth a million if it's worth a cent.
  Screw you if you are never there for me. (taboo expression)
  If that's true, I'm a Dutchman. (or *the Pope*; saying expressing disbelief)
  If Jane is safe, I'll eat my hat. (fixed expression)

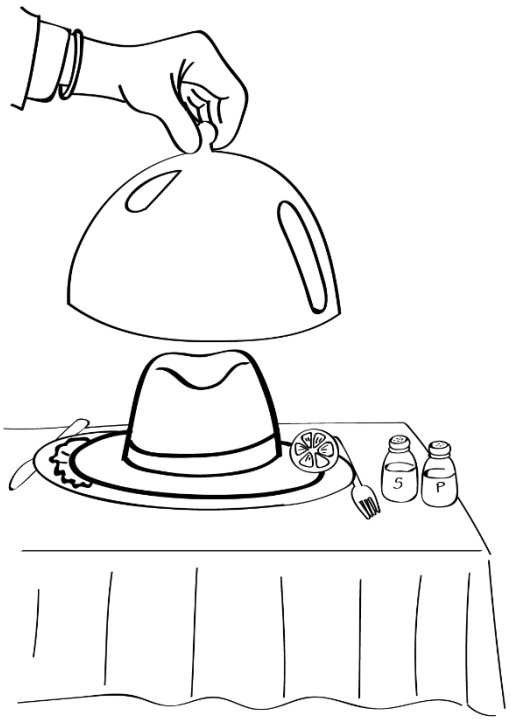

Illustration 36. If ... I'll eat my hat.

- polite rhetorical questions may be formulated with *I wonder* or *I was wondering*:
  I wonder if I'll ever get used to this country. (rhetorical question)
  I wonder if I shouldn't ask her to come urgently. ('extra' negative, cf. 41:239)
  I wonder if I might make a suggestion.
  (polite request, tentative permission, 36:233)
  I was wondering if you could re-evaluate my request.

5.6.2. Indirect, polite and concessive (non)-conditionals

Indirect conditionals are related to speech acts (46:340), as they express the speaker's uncertainty or signal that the actual words are not to be taken literally (cf. 36:1095), asking for the hearer's agreement.

Overall, grammar books often consider them among conditionals (they are formally), although the condition is "conventionally taken for granted" (36:1089), they are understood as "a metalinguistic comment" (16:484) combined with tentativity (28:205), hypothesis and politeness:

This is how we deal with cons in ADX Florence, if you understand me.
John is an extremely skilled hunter, if you know what I mean…

The meanings of these conditionals may range from a friendly note to a rather serious threat or warning. They are connected to the previously discussed rhetorical conditionals, as indirect ones may be misunderstood, hedging about the speaker's own or the hearer's knowledge (36:1095):

If I understand it correctly, you are having an affair.
(Of course, we both know the truth.)
She is my nephew, if you remember her.
Two and two make four, if you've not forgotten already. (ironical)

The conditional clause expresses uncertainty combined with "tentativeness, which adds politeness to the utterances":[48]

If she's sleeping, I need her phone number. (uncertainty)
In case you don't know, the Does are dangerous. (uncertainty or irony)
In case you meet him, you haven't seen me today. (indirect requests)
Either John gives in or he doesn't stand a chance against an entire squad.
If you need a lift, I'm leaving soon. (indirect offer)
I don't know if / whether John will survive this time. (indirect question)
I don't know if I'll ever love you. (indirect question & rhetorical question)
Where did your parents go, if you know? (direct question)

Politer formulas also belong to indirect conditionals (16:484), but they may contain an air of irony; while the *if*-clause is an 'adjunct' in direct conditions, the *if*-clause in indirect conditions is called a "style disjunct":[49]

***If we may be more specific**, such an act would destroy our civilization.*
***If I may be quite frank** with you, you are not very bright to act like that.*
***If I may say so**, this is not the best option.*
***If I may**, I can explain this.*
***If I might suggest**, there is one extra seat.*
***If you don't mind my saying so**, the car is a real bargain.*
***If you don't mind**, I'll stick to plan A.*
***If you follow me**, you'll know that I'm right.*
***If you please**, the Christmas tree need decorating.*
(leading to indirect conditionals)

The highlighted phrases soften statements, and further ones referring to indirect and polite conditionals are:

[48] 36:1095, 41:237.
[49] 29:746, 36:1089, 37:757.

assuming that you know	*if that's all right with you*
if I can judge objectively	*if that's the correct term*
if I may be personal	*if that's the right word*
if I may change the subject	*if that's the word for it*
if I may interrupt you	*if you can be serious for just this once*
if I may phrase it crudely	*if you could just …*
if I may phrase it delicately	*if we can believe them*
if I may phrase it figuratively	*if you can keep a secret*
if I may put it bluntly	*if you don't mind*
if I may put it like this	*if you know what I'm referring to*
if I may put it simply	*if you like*
if I may say so	*if you remember*
if I understand you correctly	*if you see what I mean*
if I'm correct	*if you will (formal)*
if I may put it so	*in case you don't know*
if it'll help	*in case you don't remember*
if it's not rude to ask	*in the event you have forgotten*
if one may put it so	*supposing that you remember*

Table 78. Indirect conditional markers

However, some formally polite conditionals may reflect hidden orders (cf. 98:7), clearly signalling that the non-conditional purpose is more important:

Shut the door, if you please.
Show me your homework, if I may ask so.
Would you like it if she disappeared?

Conditionals may also overlap with **concession**; while conditionals describe "dependence of a circumstance on another, concessive clauses imply a contrast between two circumstances" (29:744) with prominent markers:[50]

***Even if** you offer them a lot of money, the Does will still refuse you.*
***Whether or not** you listen to her, she will talk for hours on end.*
(correlative conjunction resulting in a closed situation)
*I'm going to read this book, **if** a bit boring.*
('reduced' concessive, cf. the next section)
*The colonel's order, **if** categorical, is difficult to carry out.*
***Whether** you are a believer **or not**, you can still not explain this.*

Thus **concessive clauses** are also discussed as 'alternative' conditionals[51] or 'exhaustive' conditional constructions ("an interrogative clause to express a set of conditions that exhaustively cover the possibilities" 52:179–180), where *wh*-conditional clauses are also listed:

Whatever you do, I still love you.
(open possibility: ~ Even if you don't love me, I still love you.)
Wherever you may go, you will see discontented people.
However trained John was, he still couldn't cope with so many fighters.
Whichever travel destination you would choose, none of them costs under £1,000.
(No matter how hard we try, they always win the game.)

[50] Both concessive and conditional markers are: *although, even if, even though, if, may be … but, when, whereas* (formal), *while, whilst* (BE) or *whether*, cf. 41:239, 46:343, 36:1097.
[51] 29:750, 46:342.

5.6.3. Implicit conditionals and modals

Implicit conditionals (30:172, 4:438) contain a main clause only, and an implicit conditional subordinate clause, which is not stated (thus – technically speaking – these are non-conditionals); alternative names are 'incomplete' (28:179, 78:100), 'covert' (75:149) or even 'implied' conditionals.

Modal verbs are typically used in conditional main clauses, and they are considered to be elliptical; in fact, it has been stated that **conditionality** "turns out to be more or less the same thing as **modality**", offering "a more precise way of distinguishing between different degrees of modality" (28:177, based on 19:53), which is further supported by discussing conditionals together with 'various concepts' expressed by modal verbs (3:136–177):

You could be right. (~ If you say so …)
John must be well-trained. (… if he can handle four thugs at once.)
Jane should clean the windows. (… if her mother-in-law arrives tomorrow.)

More than that, it is suggested that *could, might, would* and *should* (sometimes) are the conditional pairs of *can, may, will* and *shall*;[52] in fact, when discussing *might* and *could* – among features, such as 'past', 'formal', 'polite', 'tentative', and 'hypothetical' –, 'conditional' is a legitimate one (19:266, cited in 28:177).

1. ***will*** is "often used in a conditional sense" without explicit conditions (78:173):
   She will tell you (if you are right or not).
   This will do. That'll do. (idiomatic expression, 78:139)
   Jane won't complain.[53] *(regardless of the colonel's attitude)*
   Jane won't complain. (whether or not she has to deploy another suicidal mission)
   Jane won't complain. (no matter how severely she is wounded)

2. ***would*** is much more frequent, being connected to unreal conditionals (past, present and future alike, (75:149–150); although "implied condition is very vague" (78:174), certain negative expressions are also typical in the main clause:
   That would be very nice. (formulaic expression)
   This would take about three days.
   Would you like to be in Paris?
   I would say that's not possible. (*… if you asked me*; polite conditional, cf. 11:314)
   Jane wasn't late for the briefing. I guess the colonel would have been furious.
   I wouldn't dream of visiting Paris. (… if you didn't encourage me.)
   I wouldn't know how to react. (… if I were you.)
   I wouldn't mind a cup of tea. (… if you offered me some.)
   I wouldn't say a word (if I were you).
   I wouldn't dream of a detached house in the neighbourhood. (… if I were you.)
   I wouldn't know the correct answer. (… if I were to answer it.)
   I wouldn't mind a beer or two. (… if we were to watch TV.)
   That wouldn't be impossible for the Does. (… if the opportunity arose.)

3. *could* is frequently associated with both tentative and conditional meaning, leading to 'incomplete' or 'covert' condition; if speech acts are implied, we could say that an entire palette may result from the use of *could*:
   You could reach the stars. (*… if you wanted to*. – motivation)

[52] 28:176, 180, 205, 208.
[53] This structure is referred to as 'variant of exhaustive conditional construction', cf. 52:180.

We could be living happily.
(*… if you wouldn't be complaining all the time.* – scolding)
I couldn't have managed it otherwise. (… if you hadn't helped me out.)

4. however, it is not only modals that can trigger an implicit conditional:
I'm taking my umbrella (even if it isn't raining yet).
People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.
(restrictive relative clause, cf. 36:1091)
Commanders who are brave win battles.
(~ Brave commanders win battles. ~ If commanders are brave, they win battles.)

5.6.4. "Ordinary" if

Ordinary *if*[54] refers to structures in which if does not express unreal situations, but it functions as a conjunction, reminding us again that not all *if*-clauses are automatically conditional structures, even if they may contain certain conditions:

Girls cry whenever you pull their pigtails. (timeless, generic)
As John didn't show up at the briefing, he was probably involved in something else.
If you didn't see the first episode, you won't understand the sequel.

5.7. Conditional proverbs, sayings, quotes

There are many proverbs, saying, quotes, stock phrases or idiomatic expressions containing various types of conditionals.[55] Some of them are widely known even by non-native speakers:

I would if I could but I can't.
If "ifs" and "ans" were pots and pans.
If it ain't broke, don't fix it.
If it were not for hope, the heart would break.
If there were no clouds, we should not enjoy the sun.
If things were to be done twice all would be wise.
If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.
If you always do what you've always done, you'll always get what you've always got. (Henry Ford)
If you can't beat 'em, join 'em.
If you don't have anything nice to say, don't say anything at all.
If you snooze, you lose.
If you want something done right, you have to do it yourself.
If you're not part of the solution, you're part of the problem.
Nothing is so bad but it might have been worse.
Nothing is so good but it might have been better.
You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours. (implied)
Pigs might fly if they had wings.

[54] The term is to be found in 41:234.
[55] Collected from various sources, including http://buklib.net/books/32090/, 04. 08. 2017.

Illustration 37. Pigs might fly

5.8. Instead of conclusions

We have seen that conditionals are very diversified, making use of a multitude of verb forms, tenses, modal verbs, with rich and overlapping names. Hence we conclude that the mainstream conditional theory is hard to accept, as it is rather limited and not functional. Instead of focusing on types, meaning should be highlighted, disregarding past, present or future forms.

Yet, non-native speakers should dedicate enough time to discover the continuum of hypothetical meanings along the line of possible to impossible, which is a challenging task for various reasons:

- conditionals prove that previous forms (e.g. II. verb form) combined with *if* gain a completely different meaning with various shades, due to the lack of conjugation in English;
- conditionals imply the use of modal verbs, whose meanings is yet to discuss, so at this stage only a partial discussion is possible;
- non-native speakers may end up completely puzzled, discovering the immense richness of conditionals ranging from 'zero' conditional to conditionals that even lack *if* or any of its convenient alternatives (cf. implied ones);
- the ultimate list of the conditional 'mix' contains almost any verb form and tense as well as modal verbs, so a solid foundation of verb and tense meanings, completed with modal ones takes us further in effectively using conditionals than trying to remember their names and types, although the initial stage starts from identifying them based on forms and types.

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6. HYPOTHETICAL CONSTRUCTIONS

6.1. Introduction

Subjunctive Mood deals with non-factual, contrary to fact situations (cf. section 4.2.), leading to conditional sentences (Chapter 5), as hypotheticality is part of subjunctives.

This chapter deals with 'further' hypothetical constructions, which are connected to conditional sentences as the common element is the II. verb form combined with specific words and phrases (*wish, if only, would rather*, etc.). However, the use of the II. verb form is not a "special use" (suggested in 12:48), but it is due to a system in which the combination of different verb forms with words and phrases leads to various meanings.

We have seen that the difference between conditional sentences type I and II has little to do with time, as the primary difference is associated with a continuum of probability, possibility. Type II conditional is closer to the unreal, tentative, thus hypothetical, due to the II. verb form in the subordinate clause and the modal verb in the main clause. A specific case is the appearance of the *were*-subjunctive in the hypothetical condition:

*If I **were** you, I wouldn't bother too much about that.*
*If I **were** in your shoes, I would kiss her.*
If I had been there, I would have popped the question.

The three sentences express various degrees of hypotheticality, as the first one is closer to the impossible than the second one, while the third case refers to a "completely hypothetical" (39:97) case, which is contrary to the present fact and cannot be changed, as the action is 'consumed'. The idea that there are no clear-cut hypothetical cases is supported in other sources as well, thus hypotheticality expresses a certain "probability of realisation" (93:88).

As hypothetical constructions can differentiate situations which are non-factual at present but are possible in the future from non-possible ones, it is obvious that different verb forms are needed:

1. II. verb forms are associated with possible hypothesis (present or future reference, cf. 72:153), unless the verb meaning excludes this possibility:
   I wish we went to an exotic place. (still possible)
   I wish I were born today. (purely imaginary due to verb meaning)

2. III. verb forms headed by *had* (i.e. Past Perfect Simple) are associated with hypothesis referring to the past (67:155, 72:153):
   I wish we had travelled to an exotic place.

Although there are different terms referring to these specific structures,[1] we refer to them as **hypothetical constructions**, as they all contain if as a hypothetical marker (either visibly or 'embedded' in their meaning and verb forms connected to them).

[1] Unreal tenses and subjunctives in 26:48–50, unreal past in 44:174.

While the list is rather extended, many forms are similar and we only deal with the expressions in bold, while the ones marked with an asterisk (*) are used in inversion as well and are dealt with in other chapters:

as if	*if… should**	*supposing*
as though	***if only***	*were to* (If it were to)*
assuming	*imagine*	*were* (If I were)*
even if	*it's about time*	*what if*
even though	*it's high time*	***wish***
had best	***it's time***	*would prefer it ('d prefer)*
had better	*say*	*would rather ('d rather)*
had rather	***suppose***	*would sooner ('d sooner)*

Table 79. Major hypothetical constructions

Although these constructions seem to be marginal in use, they are often met in speech, or the media (especially in music).[2]

6.2. Wish

One of the most frequent hypothetical constructions is *wish*, which is a "counterfactual marker",[3] thus – similarly to other hypotheticals – emphasises that the situation is false at the moment of speaking (cf. 38:124). Hypothetical wishes may refer to:

1. the present or future time (hypotheticals followed by remote or II. verb forms as well as modals):
   I wish he worked as a lawyer.

2. the past time (hypotheticals followed by *had* and the III. verb forms):
   I wish he had worked as a lawyer.

3. the future, present and past time (hypotheticals followed by modal verbs):
   I wish he would work as a lawyer.

6.2.1. *Wish* for present & future

Wish followed by the II. verb form (similarly to type II conditionals) may express:

1. a desire for something to be different in the present or future[4] or for something that is possible to happen (40:224) or there is hope that the expressed desire might speed up the desired event (2:139):
   I wish I didn't have to explain you this.
   The colonel wishes John contacted him before dawn.
   I wish I met John tomorrow.

[2] One of the most famous lines is *Wish you were here*. (Pink Floyd first, then Rednex).
[3] 20:79 quoted in 97:290.
[4] 4:442, 9:320, 41:618–619, 44:172, 50:159, 74:28.

2. dissatisfaction (47:77), regret for a present situation[5] "we are not happy about, but cannot change" (54:179), habits, regular events (13:344), or hiding an impossible desire:[6]
   I wish I had enough experience for the job.
   I wish you didn't yell at me.
   I wish the paparazzi didn't take unwanted photos for tabloids, don't you?[7]
   I wish you were here.
   I wish I were / was you.
   Shrek wishes Donkey were / was far away from the swamp.
   I wish I knew your great-great grandfather.
   I wish you were younger.

A few remarks are also necessary:

- the use of the subjunctive *were* instead of the indicative *was* (11:311) is more formal (41:618–619); however, it is only *were* that may be used to express emphasised wishes by inversion (33:253):
  Were the thugs fewer! (~ I wish the thugs were fewer.)
- the interrogative form reveals that *wish* is a weak verb, supported by *do* as the auxiliary verb 41:618–619):
  Do you ever wish you lived somewhere else?
- the verb form does not change in reported speech either (4:442, 33:261), as the overall meaning is still valid:
  Shrek wished Donkey were / was far away from the swamp.
- Past Continuous form is also possible[8] for a more vivid scenery (highlighting that the event includes the moment of speech as well) or prolonged events (cf. 2.6.2.):
  I wish you weren't complaining (all the time).
  I wish Jane was resting instead of watching the news.

6.2.2. *Wish* for past

Wish has a definite past reference when followed by *had* + III. verb form ("hypothesizing about the past", 67:155), which is similar to type III conditional subordinate clauses in form and meaning. Thus it may express:

1. unfulfilled desires:[9]
   I wish I had met the President in 2018.

2. nostalgia (2:139):
   I wish we had taken a photo in that cafeteria.

3. past regrets[10] about things, situations or events the speaker cannot change (7:182), although less yearning than constructions with *if only* (cf. section 6.3.):
   The colonel wishes he hadn't sent John in a suicide mission.
   I wish you hadn't spent all my money.
   Jane wished she had taken a nap before launching the attack.

[5] 13:341, 33:261, 45:132–133, 74:212.
[6] 44:162, 45:133, 11:311.
[7] The present situation is emphasised even by the question tag.
[8] 50:159, 41:618–619.
[9] Cf. 41:618–619, 36:118, 4:442, 44:172, 13:347.
[10] 43:269, 44:162, 45:132–133, 47:77, 54:180.

6.2.3. *Wish* & modal verbs

Wish may form constructions with a few modal verbs, such as *would, could, may* or *might* resulting in special meanings associated with future or present time, presented below.

6.2.3.1. *Wish* & *would*

While *wish* followed by a II. verb form formally matches a type II conditional subordinate clause, it is possible for *wish* to be connected to *would* (which is typically the main clause of a conditional sentence). Thus a modal meaning should derive form the combination:

If you spotted John in the jungle, he wouldn't be a pro. (conditional)
I wish you would stop complaining. You're driving me crazy.
I wish I would have met my great-great grandfather.

This combination is used to refer to:

1. desire to change events in the future, dissatisfaction,[11] regrets or annoyance (41:618–619) for events which "will probably not happen" (67:155), or seem to be 'hopeless'; it is not used for our own self (in these cases *were* is used); if there is hope, than *hope* is more natural to be used:
   I wish we would live in peace in harmony.
   I wish Jane would take a nap before the attack.
   I wish the wind wouldn't blow during the game.
   I hope Jane can take a nap before the attack.

2. urge to change (7:182), critical / polite request or order (41:618–619), ironical remark, or strong desire for a change,[12] thus are similar to imperatives (13:352):
   I wish you'd express your true intentions.
   I wish we would start thinking seriously about our common future.
   I wish you would leave now.

3. annoying habits, complaints, impatience, irritation[13] associated with (un)willingness[14] to perform the action or change a deliberate behaviour (45:132–133); wishes about other people involve that he or she refuses to change (47:77); it may refer to inanimate objects as well:
   I wish you would quit drinking.
   I wish you wouldn't keep lying about your affairs.
   I wish the car wouldn't break down so often.
   I wish you would not scatter your dirty socks in my room.

[11] 72:153, 33:262, 54:180.
[12] 2:139, 9:320.
[13] 27:40–41, 44:172, 50:159, 72:153.
[14] 3:141, 67:155, 33:262, 7:183.

Illustration 38. I wish you wouldn't ...

4. past reference may be expressed by *would have* + III. verb form:
   I wish you would have married my daughter.

5. emphasised wishes with inversion (starting with *would*) are "obsolete" or "fossilized" (40:236), and belong to formulaic subjunctives (section 4.2.4.4.):
   Would that it were / was true.
   Would to God John returned home!
   Would it had not been so!
   (~ 'Wise after the event.', thus impossible wish, cf. 11:311)
   Would to God I had known! (~ It's no use crying over spilt milk.)

6. *would* is otherwise used by itself to express both future and past wishes (cf. 65:156), with *would like* as a salient example; in these cases, the 'request component' of *wish* is missing; *want* is also a possibility for future wishes, but it is less polite or more "confident" (cf. 33:257):
   I would like to taste that wine tomorrow.
   I would like to have tasted that wine yesterday.
   I would have liked to taste that wine yesterday.
   I want to taste that wine tomorrow.

6.2.3.2. *Wish* & *could*

Wish combined with *would* expresses willingness (cf. the previous section), while *wish* may form a construction with *could*, associated with ability (40:224). Possible meaning of the *wish + could* construction are:

1. present situations we wish to change in the future, although at present this seems impossible to achieve,[15] or feeling sorry for that (33:261):

[15] 45:133, 50:159, 54:179.

Wish I could fly. (Roxette or Keith Harris and Orville the Duck)
John wishes he could pass the sentinel unobserved.
I wish I could be with you again.
I wish I could speak German.
I wish I could remember how to get there.
I wish I could trust you.

2. past situations we feel regret about:
   I wish we could have spent more time together.
   I wish my school days could have dragged on a little longer, or that I could go back and do it later in life. (Cara Delevingne)[16]

6.2.3.3. *Wish* & *may*

Wish combined with *may* expresses desires whose fulfilment depends on circumstances and it is highly emotive:

I wish you may be lucky this time.

However, this construction is rather rare, and is 'fossilized' in formulaic subjunctive expressions (3:142), thus becoming more emphatic due to the inversion (cf. 4.2.4.4.):

May the force be with you.[17]
May all your dreams come true!

6.2.3.4. *Wish* & *might*

Wish combined with might refers to "highly" unlikely (3:142) wishes:

I wish I might become a Jedi Master.
I wish you might never face fear again.

Past reference is also possible, in which case the wish was not fulfilled in the past (11:307):

I wish we might have met Obi-Wan Kenobi during the shooting of Star Wars.
Given the circumstances, Luke wished he might have never known his father.

6.2.4. Further constructions with *wish*

There are a few constructions with *wish* which are structurally different from the previous ones:

1. *wish* is used in stock phrases to express good wishes, in which case it functions as a ditransitive verb:[18]
   We wish you a Merry Christmas.[19]
   I wish you good health.
   Wish me good luck. (imperative)

2. *wish* may be followed by an infinitive construction, which is a very formal option:[20]
   I wish to express my utter dissatisfaction regarding your services.
   Do you wish to make a formal complaint?

[16] https://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/c/caradelevi653806.html?src=t_wish, 22. 08. 2017.
[17] http://starwars.wikia.com/wiki/May_the_Force_be_with_you, 22. 08. 2017.
[18] 41:618–619, 74:29.
[19] *You* is the first object, while *Christmas* is the second object, hence wish is ditransitive.
[20] 47:77, 74:29.

The management wish you to accept our sincere apologies for the incident.
You must be the change you wish to see in the world. (Mahatma Gandhi)
Those who wish to sing always find a song. (Plato)
Do you wish to rise? Begin by descending. (Saint Augustine)

3. possible alternatives are:
   I would like to express my utter dissatisfaction regarding your services.
   I want to make a complaint. (less polished)

4. *wish* may be followed by a *that*-clause (36:1183), expressing a "regret that things are not different" or seem impossible to change for the better in the future (41:618–619); that is usually ellipted in less formal cases:
   I wish that I were / was smarter.
   I wish that you would bother somebody else.
   Don't you wish that we would interview the Does?
   Don't you (ever) wish that you could play the guitar?

The importance of *wish* is reflected in non-grammatical statements as well:
The meaning of the world is the separation of wish and fact. (Kurt Gödel)
A goal without a plan is just a wish. (Antoine de Saint-Exupéry)

6.3. If only

If only is mostly an emphasised wish,[21] being "more dramatic" (33:261); however, similar constructions are possible to express past, present and future hypotheses (67:155), detailed below.

6.3.1. *If only* for present & future

If only followed by a II. verb form refers to unreal conditions (37:751), involving both possible and impossible present or future desires:

1. possible future desires connected to people or inanimate objects (45:132–133) stemming from present dissatisfaction,[22] thus often interpreted as exclamations (50:159):
   If only I were with you!
   If only I were / was a millionaire!
   If only the holiday lasted longer...

2. regret for impossible desires,[23] habits or repeated events (13:356) or "wishes about other people" who "refuse to change" (47:77):
   If only I were younger!
   If only you didn't drink so much!

3. the II. verb form may be replaced by a continuous verb form (cf. Past Continuous) to create a more emphatic or vivid case scenario:
   If only Jane wasn't sleeping when we get to her place!

[21] 27:40–41, 40:224, 44:162, 45:133.
[22] 9:320, 47:77.
[23] 44:162, 45:132–133.

If only you weren't working tomorrow. I have a wonderful plan.

4. highly improbable or unlikely future desires,[24] criticism or complaint for others' behaviour as well as inanimate objects[25] with the help of modal verbs (cf. willingness for *would* and ability for *could*); in these cases *if only* combined with modal verbs stand for "polite imperatives" (40:224):
   If only we would visit Shakespeare's birthplace.
   If only you wouldn't grin all the time. (annoyance)
   If only the target would be closer.
   If only we could communicate with aliens.
   If only you could resist the temptation.
- these structures are often viewed as elliptical, being easy to complete:
  If only we would visit Shakespeare's birthplace, then I could take some photos.
  If only you wouldn't grin all the time, so that we could have a real conversation.
  If only we could communicate with aliens, I would have a few questions about the universe.

6.3.2. *If only* for past

Similarly to *wish*, *if only* may refer to regrets[26] for unfulfilled events or something to have happened differently (44:172):

- followed by *had* + III. verb form:
  If only the colonel hadn't ordered the attack at dawn.
  If only I had been more thoughtful about that.
- followed by a continuous form (40:225, also cf. Past Perfect Continuous):
  If only we had been living in a forest in my childhood.
- followed by a modal verb + *have* + III. verb form:
  If only you would have listened to me.
  If only you could have resisted the temptation.

6.4. As if, as though

As if or *as though* are hypothetical markers joining two clauses. The main clause may start with *It looks / seems / sounds / smells* or *He / She behaves / acts*, followed by *as if / though* and various verb forms resulting in Adverbial Clauses of Manner or Comparison (4:444).

The hypothetical meaning derives from II. or *had* + III. verb forms:

1. present or future non-factual situations when the situation seemingly "does not match with reality";[27] it may also reflect the "impression on someone through direct experience" (7:184):
   You can't behave as if you were nuts.
   The captain looked at Shrek as if he were / was mad.
   The colonel gave orders as though he were / was on the spot.
   (subjunctive or non-subjunctive)
   The colonel gives orders as though he knew what was going to happen.
   You speak as if you knew John personally.

[24] 13:358, 36:1092, 67:155.
[25] 44:172, 45:132–133.
[26] 7:182, 67:155–156.
[27] 44:175, 45:130.

Jane speaks French as though she was born in Paris.

- continuous form is also possible:
  John opened the umbrella as though it was raining. In fact, it was a gun.
  It sounded as if the colonel was preparing for something big.

2. non-factual past situations when the speaker knows about the false case scenario (cf. 13:366–367):
   John didn't move as if he had been wounded.
   Jane looks as though she hadn't slept a wink before the attack.
   Com'on! You can't act as if nothing had happened between us.
   Donkey is so scared as though he had seen a ghost.

3. modal verbs may also be combined with *as if / though*:
   Jane acted as if she could fly a spaceship.
   John took a hammer as if he would smash the window.
   It looked as if someone might explain what had happened.

Being hypothetical constructions – similarly to hypothetical conditional sentences –, neither the present nor the past constructions are affected in form in reported speech:

Shrek saw that Donkey was so scared as though he had seen a ghost.
I heard that you spoke as if you knew John personally.

However, *as if* or *as though* may be combined with other verb forms as well (which are basically tenses), in which case there is a "possibility that the appearance reflects something real":[28]

- I. verb form (cf. Present Simple):
  The stranger speaks as if she is French. (She may be.)
  Don't pretend as if you don't know who is to be blamed for this.
- continuous verb forms (cf. Present Continuous):
  It sounds as though they are quarrelling. (Just look at them!)
- *have* or *has* + III. verb form (cf. Present Perfect Simple):
  Jane looks as if she hasn't slept a wink. (Has she?)
- expressing near-future is also possible (cf. Going to Future, tense ⑬):
  It looks as if John is going to pick a fight. (He has already grabbed a shovel.)
- any of the above remarks may turn "critical, ironic or sarcastic" (cf. 44:175):
  You drink as though you haven't touched alcohol for a year.
  Donkey is confident, as if he knows the way to the swamp.
- *feel like* is a less polished alternative for *as if* or *as though*:
  'I feel like we're being watched.' (Luke Skywalker in Star Wars V)

6.5. What if

What if may be used to introduce hypothetical situations (54:179), although the meaning reflects that it is about unreal cases.

What if is in fact an elliptical conditional structure, which takes an interrogative form. Thus it may be followed by:

[28] 2:143, 34:234, 44:175, 45:132, 67:155–156.

1. the II. verb form (cf. conditional sentence type II) to refer to possible, imaginary cases:
   What if I called you a liar?

2. *had* + III. verb form (cf. conditional sentence type III) to express impossible, unfulfilled (cf. nostalgia, day-dreaming, fantasy) scenarios:
   What if Dragon hadn't become enamoured of Donkey's charming words?

6.6. Suppose, supposing

Suppose (that) and *supposing (that)* – similarly to *What if* – are sentence starters followed by verb forms, which result in hypothetical constructions[29] with:

1. present unreal[30] reference if the construction contains II. verb form (signalling remote possibility); although it resembles type II conditionals, it is purely hypothetical (imaginary, creating a virtual possibility), as it does not impose any condition (37:753–754); it may foreshadow possible consequences (45:132) or possibilities if an interrogative follows the construction:
   Suppose you were richer.
   Supposing you were richer, what would buy?
   Suppose (that) John died. Do you have a contingency plan?
   Suppose we had a few days off next week.
   Suppose a burglar appeared!

2. past, unfulfilled possibility (daydreaming, yearning) if followed by *had* + III. verb form:
   Supposing we had won the lottery! Could you handle it?
   Suppose you had overslept. Would you have lied about that to your boss?

In colloquial style the hypothetical subjunctive construction (with remote II. verb form) may be replaced by Indicative Mood with modal meaning (11:302):

Suppose you kill a man by accident!

Possible alternatives are possible due to the verb meaning:[31]

Assuming that you were married, would you be happier?
Imagine you landed on the Moon!
Imagine we'd been born here!

6.7. It's (...) time

There are three expressions (67:155) about due actions or events, taking part in subjunctive or hypothetical constructions:

- *It's time* is used to express warnings that 'something should be already happening',[32] the "suitable moment to do something" has arrived (54:180), this it

[29] 54:179, 67:155, 36:1183.
[30] 11:302, 27:40–41, 33:253, 87:1002–1003
[31] 26:48–50, 37:753–754.
[32] Cf. 44:175, 45:131.

the right time to head for "future wishes", but it may also express "impatience" as the action may be felt a little "overdue" (40:224);

- *It's about time* is similar in meaning to *It's time*;
- *It's high time* is more urging than the previous two, being "slightly more emphatic" (44:175), "more emphasised" and "suggesting that the event is overdue" (74:213), approaching the construction to imperatives.

All three expressions may be found in three types of constructions:

1. infinitive constructions with 'implied' subject ('for those who hear it'), including the speaker (44:175); as explained, this construction is used when the correct time has arrived to carry out an action:[33]
   *It's time **to go**.*
   (cf. Hollywood productions: *I / We gotta go. ~ We have to go. ~ We must go.*)

2. infinitive constructions with explicit subject (44:175):
   *It's time **for us to** leave.*

3. subjunctive or hypothetical constructions when *it's time* is followed by a personal pronoun or a noun and the remote (II.) verb form; in these cases, certain "criticism or complaint" is involved (34:70), as it may be already "a little late" to carry out the action (44:162):
   *It's time **you stopped** bickering.*
   *It's time **the Does deployed** the action.*
   *It's about time **we settled** the bill.*
   *It's high time **you understood** the hypothetical constructions.*
   - the continuous form (13:364) may be also used (cf. Past Continuous):
     It's time I were / was thinking about my own future.
     It's time we were leaving.
   - negative forms are not possible after *It's (about / high) time*; however, a possible exception is when the verb meaning is 'negative':
     *It's high time you **stopped** arguing about who's the smartest.*
   - while *It's time* is typically associated with present or (near) future events, storytelling (i.e. reported speech) may use *It was (about) time*:
     At that moment it was about time for the ambulance to appear.

6.8. Conclusions

Hypothetical constructions stem from the Subjunctive Mood and are similar in meaning with conditional sentences type II and III, characterised by their combination with II. verb forms (present or future reference) and *had* + III. verb forms (past reference, 43:267). In the majority of cases modal verbs add an extra 'flavour' to the hypotheticality of these structures (e.g. *would* – willingness, *could* – ability).

However, the list of hypothetical constructions is not complete, as further entries may be mentioned, such as *would rather* or *had better*. Still, we have not discussed them in this chapter, as their connection with modality was felt to be more important than their subjunctive or hypothetical reference.

[33] 13:363, 33:254, 15:18.

Hypothetical constructions are typically associated with unreality in the sense that they are 'untrue' now, at the moment of speaking, while they may be 'untrue' forever or may turn reality; the listener can judge that based on 'world knowledge' (if a particular case has ever been true, such meeting dragons), whether the scenario should be taken seriously ('as is', when playing with children) or the verb meaning.

However, explicit reference is not the point forte of these hypotheticals, leaving much space to imagination, creativity, nostalgia, daydreaming or yearning for something different; yet, they ultimately reflect a case scenario, which is unreal. As such, they contain 'implied' negative structures,[34] which are stronger with past references (*had* + III. verb form, cf. 36:1011):

I wish this chapter were over. (It's not over yet.)
If only I had a lot of money. (I don't have enough for the moment.)
You think as if you were a child. (You are evidently not.)
Suppose you didn't pass the exam.
(Let's not think about it seriously, but still…)
What if you couldn't have made it?
Supposing you had crashed my car!
(Why didn't you listen to me? Don't do that in the future!)
If only we had been able to solve the puzzle. (We didn't. We couldn't.)
I'd rather you hadn't told me. (You did tell me.)

The summarising table below draws our attention to the similarities in form and meaning regarding hypothetical constructions and conditional sentences. ⑤ refers to the II. verb form (cf. Past Simple), while ⑦ refers to *had* + III. verb form (cf. Past Perfect Simple).

The table foreshadows clearly the relationship between subjunctives, conditionals, hypotheticals and modal verbs discussed in the following section:

CONDITION & HYPOTHESIS		
Present / future	IF + ⑤	*If I saw an alien, I would be rooted to the spot.*
	IF + WERE	*If I were you, I would be rooted to the spot.*
	WISH + ⑤	*I wish I saw an alien.*
	IF ONLY + ⑤	*If only I saw an alien.*
	AS IF + ⑤	*You talk as if you saw an alien.*
	WHAT IF + ⑤	*What if you saw an alien?*
	SUPPOSE + ⑤	*Suppose you saw an alien.*
	IT'S TIME⑤	*It's (high) time we saw an alien.*
Modal present	WOULD RATHER + ⑤	*I'd rather we saw an alien (than her).*
	WOULD + I.	*I would (like to) see an alien.*
	COULD + I.	*I could see an alien (if I wanted to).*
	MAY + I.	*I may see an alien (one day).*
	MIGHT + I.	*I might see an alien (although I don't think so).*
	SHOULD + I.	*We should see an alien (soon).*
Past	IF + ⑦	*If I had seen an alien, I would have died.*
	WISH + ⑦	*I wish I had seen an alien.*
	IF ONLY + ⑦	*If only I had seen an alien.*
	AS IF + ⑦	*You talk(ed) as if you had seen an alien.*

[34] Cf. 72:153, 50:159.

	CONDITION & HYPOTHESIS	
	WHAT IF + ⑦	*What if you had seen an alien?*
	SUPPOSE + ⑦	*Suppose you had seen an alien!*
Modal past	WOULD RATHER + ⑦	*I'd rather we had seen an alien (than her).*
	WOULD HAVE III.	*I would have travelled to Route 66 to see an alien.*
	COULD HAVE III.	*We could have seen an alien.*
	MIGHT HAVE III.	*We might have seen an alien.*
	SHOULD HAVE III.	*We should have seen an alien by now.*

Table 80. Summarising hypotheticals and conditionals

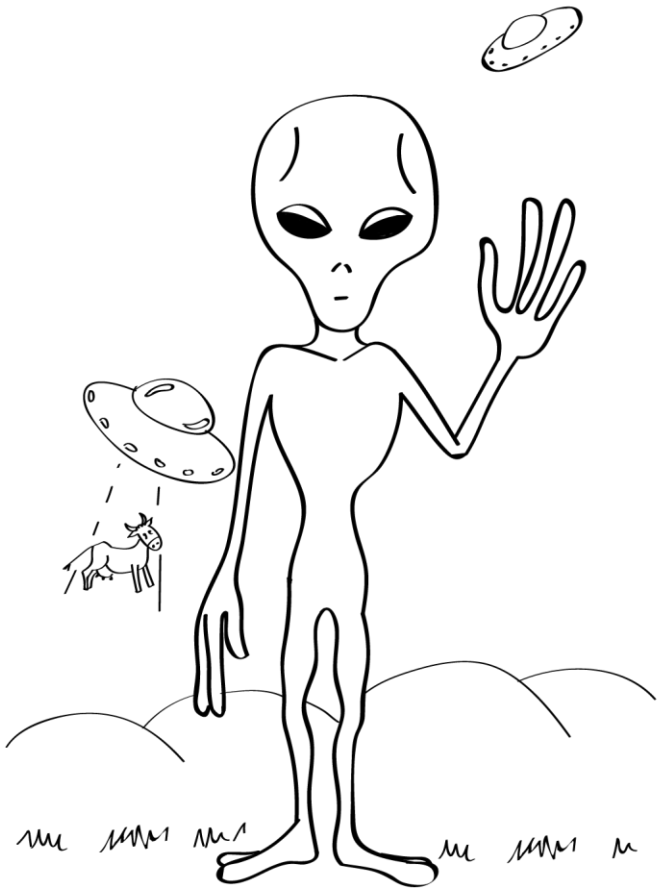

Illustration 39. If... Wish... Might...

REFERENCES

2:139, 143
3:141–143
4:423–444
7:182–184
9:320–321
11:299–315
12:48
13:341–371
15:18
20:79
26:48–50
27:40–44
33:253–262
34:70–81, 234–235
36:118, 1010–1015, 1092, 1182–1183
37:751–754
38:124–125
39:95–97
40:224–227, 236
41:618–619
43:267–269
44:162, 172–175
45:130–139
47:77–78
50:159
54:179–180
65:156
67:155–156
72:153
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7. MODALITY AND MODAL VERBS

The Difficult is that which can be done immediately; the Impossible that which takes a little longer.
George Santayana

A systematic approach to modal verbs may start by looking for possible definition(s) and classification(s) of verbs, then switching to possibilities of expressing modality and highlighting the importance of modal verbs in this respect. However, a thorough description of modal verbs entails both form and (communicative) function, making it (seemingly) impossible to cover the topic successfully due to various reasons:

- the group of modal verbs contains a varying number of entries;
- grammar books describe modal verbs from various perspectives, which are seemingly arbitrary (e.g. based on examples either created to serve the purpose – leading to a strenuous memory game of overlapping terms, such as likelihood, certainty, etc. –, or often exemplifying marginal cases); this is due to the possibility of modal verbs to express "personal judgment of the non-temporal features of an action or event" (75:138), which is also the reason why native speakers use different modal verbs for the same situation (e.g. *may* or *might*);
- monolingual descriptions hardly ever grasp so-called 'core' or 'central' meanings, offering either too few examples or too many under various headings; yet, primary "semantic characteristics of a basic meaning" for each modal verb "can be identified" (75:138);
- bilingual descriptions make use of translating them into another language, adding to the complexity, knowing that modal verbs may lead to three possibilities (in different languages):

1. they may have their 'accepted' equivalents (word-for-word);

2. they may be 'represented' by a verb suffix;

3. they may 'disappear' in translation (e.g. polite formulations).

A justified question is whether modal verbs are 'possible' to describe in a satisfactory (effective) way, as non-native speakers do need them in order to communicate successfully, as modality is a natural companion to factual information. In fact, not much hope arises from Palmer's approach:

> There is no doubt that the overall picture of the modals is extremely 'messy' and untidy and that the most the linguist can do is impose some order, point out some regularities, correspondences, parallelisms. But there is no single simple solution… (30:49)

On the one hand, it is not only linguists who are interested in language, while on the other hand it is our firm belief that linguists do not have to 'impose' anything, as rules of a language are not created by linguists, leading to further complications, beyond the range of this chapter. For the time being, it is worth making some 'mess' around in order to try

to reach some fresh conclusions. After all, "You don't get anything clean without getting something else dirty." (Cecil Baxter)

7.1. Modality

Modal categories are taken from logic (82:59), and modal operators (verbs) add modus to the semantic content. This is best understood when we try to summarise **definitions of modality**.

In a strict sense, modality is a semantic term dealing with non-factual situations, covering two large areas:

- 'human' control over a particular situation, associated with **obligation**, **permission**, **intention**, and the marginal **ability**;
- judgements expressing the speakers' **opinion** (30:2), **attitudes** (46:80), **probability**, **predictability** (28:29), or **likelihood** (36:219). referring to **factuality** (i.e. the truth value of utterances: certainty, probability, possibility);

The shortest possible definition is that modality deals with a "**personal interpretation**" of the **non-factual** and **non-temporal** elements of things, actions or events.[1] The interpretation of factuality results in connected to specific concepts such as ability, permission, or obligation (cf. 46:80), and there are various grammatical options to express them:

1. mood (cf. Subjunctive Mood in 4.2.);
2. inflection or conjugation (not characteristic to English);
3. intonation;
4. lexical units:

- nouns[2] and adjectives:[3]

Word cloud 12. Mood nouns and adjectives

- adverbs:[4]

actually	*conceivably*	*inevitably*	*perhaps*	*reportedly*
allegedly	*daresay*	*likely*	*possible*	*supposedly*
apparently	*definitely*	*maybe*	*possibly*	*sure*
arguably	*evidently*	*naturally*	*probable*	*surely*
certainly	*frankly*	*necessarily*	*probably*	*undoubtedly*
clearly	*honestly*	*obviously*	*really*	

Table 81. Adverbs and modality

[1] 75:52, 77:275.
[2] Cf. 28:33, 77:305.
[3] Cf. 28:145, 77:306.
[4] Cf. 2:93, 4:209, 28:141, 77:310, 79:247–298.

- verbs:[5]

advise	*endeavour*	*insist*	*presume*	*think*
appear	*expect*	*intend*	*recommend*	*try*
assume	*fail to*	*invite*	*refuse*	*understand*
attempt	*find*	*like*	*require*	*venture*
believe	*forbid*	*manage to*	*seek*	*want*
bet	*gather*	*mean*	*seem*	*wish*
chance	*guess*	*oblige*	*suggest*	
choose	*happen*	*order*	*suppose*	
decide	*hope*	*plan*	*suspect*	
determine	*imagine*	*prefer*	*take it*	

Table 82. Verbs and modality

- hedges (77:311), which are phrases turning factual to non-factual by blurring the truth-value of statements by dodging facts, disperse doubt, etc.:
  *Whenever in trouble, Shrek would **kind of** rescue Fiona.*
  *You know, Castle is a **sort of** agent in the TV series. (~ not really)*

Illustration 40. Sort of agent

Although the underlying part of the modality iceberg reveals an immense richness of options contributing to a colourful modal palette, the tip of the modality iceberg is represented by the **modal verbs**, which are most readily associated with the English modality:

- central or core modal verbs: *can, could, may, might, must, will, would, shall, should*;
- marginal modal verbs, quasi-modals and modal constructions:[6]

[5] Cf. 14:59, 22:289, 28:147, 37:638, 77:305, 79:204–246.
[6] As explained, [aiw] stands for *am, are, is, was, were* instead of *be* in certain constructions.

[aiw] *about to*	*be anxious to*	*had best*	*ought*
[aiw] *bound to*	*be compelled to*	*had better*	*used to*
[aiw] *going to*	*be inclined to*	*had rather*	*would rather*
[aiw] *to*	*be permitted to*	*have got to*	*would sooner*
be able to	*be unable to*	*have to*	
be allowed to	*dare*	*need*	

Table 83. Marginal modal constructions

At lexical level, modal verbs may be combined with certain adverbs to enhance the modal effect (28:141–144):

- ***can't*** + *conceivably, possibly*;
- ***couldn't*** + *conceivably, possibly*;
- ***may*** + *as well, conceivably, conceivably + well, (not) necessarily, perhaps, possibly, well*;
- ***might*** + *as well, conceivably, perhaps, possibly, well, (not) necessarily, well*;
- ***must*** + *certainly, clearly, evidently, inevitably, obviously, surely*;
- ***will*** or ***would*** + *certainly (not), probably (not), undoubtedly (not);*
- adverbs referring to the truth value of the sentence may become lexically redundant when combined with modal verbs (28:141):
  *You might be **actually** right.*
  *Now you should **really** go to bed.*
  *Quite frankly, I can't **possibly** live without you.*
  *Now **honestly**, Shrek, could you live without me?*

At morphosyntactic level, modal verbs form the most intricate modal system, pervading large areas of grammar, we have also covered in previous chapters:

- tenses (Chapter 2), more particularly with those reflecting future time (52:54);
- subjunctive structures (section 4.2., e.g. *Would to God…*);
- conditional sentences (Chapter 5, e.g. *I would buy it if …*);
- hypothetical constructions (Chapter 6, e.g. *I wish you wouldn't complain!*)

The strong connection between future time and modality has been mentioned (52:56), knowing that no factual information is available about the future; hence, we have a modal verb (*will*) often referred to as the auxiliary for future.

Thus we reach to a well-summarised definition of modality:

> … modality "refers to a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards, or point of view about, a state of the world. In particular, modals are used to say whether something is real or true, or whether it is the subject of speculation rather than definite knowledge" (37:638).

Unfortunately, the extended concept of modality is too vague with several types (succinctly summarised in 82:59), completed with a tripartite description:[7]

1. **alethic**, stemming from Aristotle's concepts of necessary, probable and impossible (truth in the world);

2. **buletic**, expressing the speaker's desires and wishes;

[7] 30:105–111, 77:276–277.

3. **axiological**, expressing values of certain groups, culture and historical periods, operating with highly subjective qualifiers (good / bad);

4. **temporal**, which may be both objective and subjective (*It's time to*, *always*, *never*, *will be*);
   There will never be another you (Nat King Cole)

5. **doxastic**, or modality of belief (*It is thought / believed / considered…*);
   It is believed that Doetown is the capital of Neverland.

6. **rational** (30:105–106), involving central modal verbs (*can, could, may, might, must*):
   The mission might be described as standard.
   At this stage the colonel must take a decision: retreat or collateral damages.

7. **existential** (30:107–111):
   Thugs can be dangerous.
   The mission may be carried out with a team of five.

However, the two most often mentioned types of modality connected to modal verbs) are:

8. **epistemic**, associated with truth (value) judgements (necessity, possibility, impossibility, probability); the term originates form the Greek 'knowledge', and it refers to what we think we know. Thus speakers offer "assurance about the truth of the proposition expressed" (87:996) or make "a judgement about the truth of the proposition" (30:6).

- it is connected to the **alethic** type, but this time the truth is in the individual's mind; it is "concerned with knowledge and / or inference based on some evidence" or drawing conclusions (77:276); as such, it is often arbitrary, **subjective**, referring to the possibility, prediction or necessity of the situation (cf. 30:7, "something is or is not the case", cf. 30:50).
- certain modal verbs associated with epistemicity have **tentative** forms (*might, would, should, could*).
- semi-modals also belong here: *be bound to* or *have (got) to*; a few adverbs are also connected to epistemic modals: *possibly, perhaps, certainly* (30:67).

9. **deontic**, connected to **obligation** (original Greek meaning), necessity, permission or prohibition; "getting people to do things or (not) allowing them to do things" (77:276), "what is required or permitted" either by authority or judgement (52:54).

- it is connected to "influencing actions, states or events" (30:6), expressing "obligatory, permitted, forbidden" things (30:7);
- deontic modality refers to "some kind of human control over the situation" (46:80), such as permission, intention, obligation, and – interestingly – **ability**, probably because it is felt as part of human control; however, the majority of grammars list it separately.
- there are special modal verbs expressing various performative acts:
  a) granting permission with *may, might, can*;
  b) laying obligation and command with *must, have (got) to, shall*;
  c) making promises or threats with *shall, will* (30:69);
  d) stating rules and regulations on behalf of an authority;

- modal verbs in interrogation constitute a possible extension towards less performative acts, such as asking for permission.

In Palmer's view these epistemic and deontic meanings are "central to modality" (30:24), and are best summarised by the concepts of **possibility** and **necessity**, which should be completed with Lewis's **inevitability** (75:115).

A further type of modality is considered to be a marginal one, yet often employed in grammar:

10. **dynamic**, encapsulating **ability**, **volition** (36:219) and **courage** (52:55), although these are neutral and circumstantial meanings (77:277), expressing either property or disposition (52:55, *can, won't, dare*).

- it may be argued that these are not strictly modality (30:7), as, for instance, ability has little to do with subjective judgements and it cannot be imposed;
- on the other hand, volition is typically connected to future, so Palmer argues that *can* and *will* "are no really modal at all" (30:37), as "**subjectivity** is an essential feature of modality" (30:206), which is not the case with ability and volition;
- however – for language-learning purposes –, dynamic modality must be considered, as futurity and modality are intertwined, involving the use of *will, can* and *shall*.

Thus it is clear that modality connects semantic ('always true') and pragmatic features ('now true'), as epistemic is associated with the former, while deontic with the latter (82:60–61). As the majority of categories tend to be fuzzy rather than clear cut (cf. Rosch's research on prototype theory), we are typically faced with **degrees** or scales of expressing certain types of modality.

For instance, the more uncertain we are, the more likely it is to rely on supposition or speculation, which may be viewed as certain provocation (82:62) on behalf of the speaker. The truth value of statements may be based on appearance ('it seems to be true'), which may turn more doubtful if another modality type completes the statement (such as temporal: it is 'possibly' true 'now' or space operators: 'here').

Another type of confusion may derive from the duality of **necessity** (deontic: 'because it is the law' and epistemic: 'because it is a logical deduction'), in which case the proper interpretation is possible with discourse factors, being context-based.

The semantic and pragmatic value of these types of statements is definitely subjective (filtered through the 'eyes' of the speaker), but there is an undeniable communication gain in the extended modal meaning (82:68). While Palmer offers a summarising table regarding the distribution of modal verbs into modality types (30:37), perfectly summarising the essence of *can*, *may* and *must*, he fails to offer a summarising term for *will* and *shall*:

	Epistemic	**Deontic**	**Dynamic**
Possibility	*may*	*may / can*	*can*
Necessity	*must*	*must*	
?	*will*	*shall*	*will*

Table 84. Palmer's modal system

It was Lewis (75:114–120) who replaced the question mark with the concept of **inevitability**, warning us that it is associated with the "greatest potential confusion" (referring to *will, would, shall* and *should*), leading us to the discussion of speech acts.

7.2. Modality and speech acts

As we would like to find the logic behind these concepts, a minimalist framework of these concepts may be established based on the sources we have mentioned so far, but discussed in all grammar books which present modal verbs as clusters around concepts.[8]

The intricacy of speech acts derives from at least two different sources: first, how they may be expressed, and secondly because they are highly subjective, resulting in ambiguous and overlapping semantic and pragmatic meanings and values.

Speech acts may be expressed by the following options (37:679–713):

- declaratives as questions;
- modals;
- interrogatives;
- imperatives.

While trying to create a summarising table of speech acts connected to modality, we have come across varied systems, among which three may be highlighted:

1. the most simplistic is Graver's (39:20–34), establishing two major categories:

ASSERTION	**LIKELIHOOD**
ability duty willingness permission (+ concession) promise	certain possible probable expectation inference logical conclusion belief conjecture

Table 85. Graver's speech acts

2. a more elaborate version belongs to Carter and McCarthy (37:679–713):

DIRECTIVES		**COMMISSIVES**
command, instruction request advice		invitation offer promise / undertaking
warning suggestion (+ possible negative outcome)	permission prohibition	request → **POLITENESS** a) tense b) negation c) 'other' d) modals

Table 86. Carter & McCarthy's speech acts

3. the most detailed system we have found so far – while dealing with modal verbs – comes from Leech and Svartvik (38:128–155), who set up five categories with many sub-entries, signalling degrees, downtoners, emotions, negative cases, referring to both present, past and future:

[8] E.g. 2:143–161; 40:207–240.

<table>
<tr><th>A. LIKELIHOOD (DEGREES)</th><th>B. ATTITUDES TO TRUTH</th><th colspan="2">C. MOOD</th></tr>
<tr><td>1 possibility
(+tentative)
2 ability
(theoretical possibility)
3 certainty or logical necessity
4 prediction or predictability
5 probability</td><td>1 certainty
2 doubt / uncertainty
3 belief / opinion
(assumption, appearance)</td><td>Volition
1 willingness
2 wish
(neutral, hypothetical
3 intentional
4 insistence</td><td>Emotions
1 (dis)like
2 preference
3 hope
(tentative)
4 regret
5 wish
6 approval
disapproval
7 surprise
8 concern
9 worry</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">D. PERMISSION</th><th colspan="2">E. INFLUENCING PEOPLE</th></tr>
<tr><td>1 permission
2 obligation / compulsion
3 ‘other’ obligation
a. ‘internal’ obligation
b. ‘strong’ recommendation
c. ‘insistence’ obligation
(official regulations, formal documents)
4 involving future
a. warning
b. promise
c. threat
d. regret
e. offer</td><td>1 prohibition
(negating permission)
2 ‘weakened’ prohibition
(negative advice)</td><td colspan="2">1 command
a. direct, imperative
b. ‘politer’
c. using downtoners
2 request
a. direct
b. ‘indirect’
3 advice
+ suggest
+ invite
(tactful, milder commands)</td></tr>
</table>

Table 87. Leech & Svartvik's speech acts

The difference of the three systems comes from the depth the authors wishing to delve into the problem as well as the subjectivity of the topic; after all, modality and speech acts express either the speaker’s approach or the involvement of a ‘third party’ in influencing the listener.

In the following we would like to present our possible interpretation of modality and speech acts:

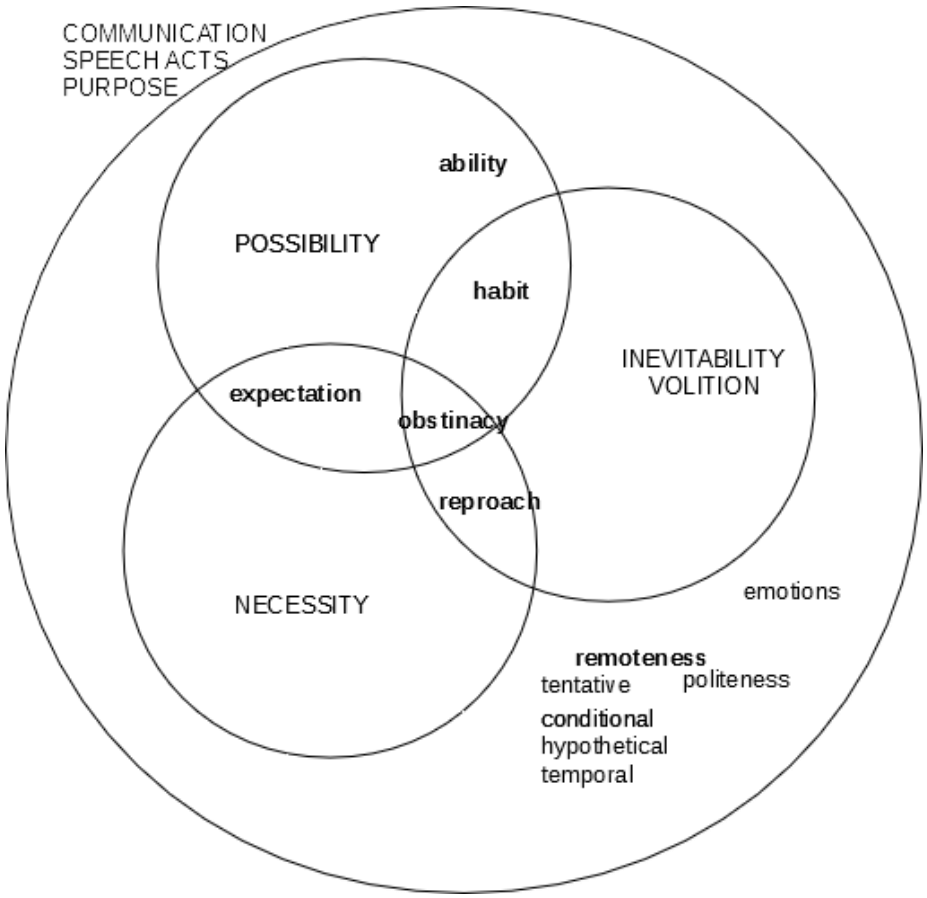


Figure 16. Modality and speech acts

According to the illustration, human communication is a purposeful activity, which is expressed by various speech acts. There are three major modal options:

1. possibility (can, could, may, might);
2. necessity / obligation (*must*);
3. inevitability / volition (*will, would, shall, should*).

However, these are deeply characterised by **subjectivity**, thus parts of the circle merge, hence we have possible 'bridges' between these three options; for instance,

- **expectation** may be connected to both **necessity** ('I expect something because it must be done') and **possibility** ('I expect it because it can be done');
- **reproach** may stem from **necessity** ('I am not satisfied because the action / result should have been different') or **inevitability** ('I warned you this was going to happen');
- **habit** may be on borderline between routine-like **ability** (theoretical possibility) and **volition**;
- **obstinacy** may have various origins:
    a) 'although I **have to** do it, I won't'
    b) 'I am **able to** do it, but I won't'
    c) 'I **know** this is going to happen, **but** I won't change anything about it'

Although each possible interpretation is connected to something illogical (from the point of view of the listener), the speaker is either under the influence of emotions (subjective approach to the potential task), or (s)he operates according to a logic beyond the understanding of the interlocutor.

Clearly, there are more possible speech acts combining these three basic options, but the framework needs further additions:

1. the concept of 'remoteness' (cf. 75:102) encapsulates further improvements to the scene, as it may refer to politeness, emotions or time, without which the framework is not fully functional;
2. as the entire scene is subjective, there are degrees (scales) of all these attitudes and concepts, which may refer to:

- **temporal** degrees: *never, sometimes* (cf. 'sporadic' ability);
- **emotional** degrees: extrovert, strong, loud emotions (irritation, curse) and introvert ones (regret, sorrow, despair); furthermore, emotions tend to be mostly negative (impatience, anger), but there are neutral (puzzlement) and positive ones as well (joy, like); some might be deeply involved, while others showing complete indifference (or concession) to possibilities, necessities or inevitable things;
- **tentative** degrees expressed by various conditional and hypothetical options (*if you can, if you could, if I may, if I were to…, if I might*);
- degrees of **politeness**, ranging from impolite (*can*) to overpolite expressions (*wonder + might*), which may turn to irony, sarcasm, humour, etc.; politeness reflects the speaker's attempt "to conform in certain ways to the listener's expectations" (75:44–45), also signalling that in the majority of cases "the relationship between the speakers is relatively remote" (75:70).

As we are primarily focusing on modal verbs, we have collected more than a hundred descriptions about them all referring to various speech acts. While the overall view presented above may seem simplistic, these concepts (mostly intention rather than actual content of utterances) are rather numerous, and they may be divided into (37:680):

- **constatives** (truth-related: affirmation, claim, deny, predict, etc.);
- **directives** (strong intentions: advice, ask, command, forbidding, instruction, prohibition, request, suggest, threat, warning);
- **commissives** (offer, invitation, promise);
- **expressives** (apology, condemn, regret);
- **declarations** (phrases functioning as performatives: I pronounce …)

Modal verbs are mostly associated with directives and commissives, although there are no clear-cut categories. As a **request** may be direct (command) or indirect (suggestion) with varying degrees of polite-ness, it depends on the listener whether the utterance below is considered to be natural or exaggerated:

*I **was wondering if** you **could offer** a clue about the case.*

In order to offer a more detailed insight into the immense richness of modal verbs expressing these concepts, we have created clustered them semantically, focusing on the most central meanings of the central modal verbs.

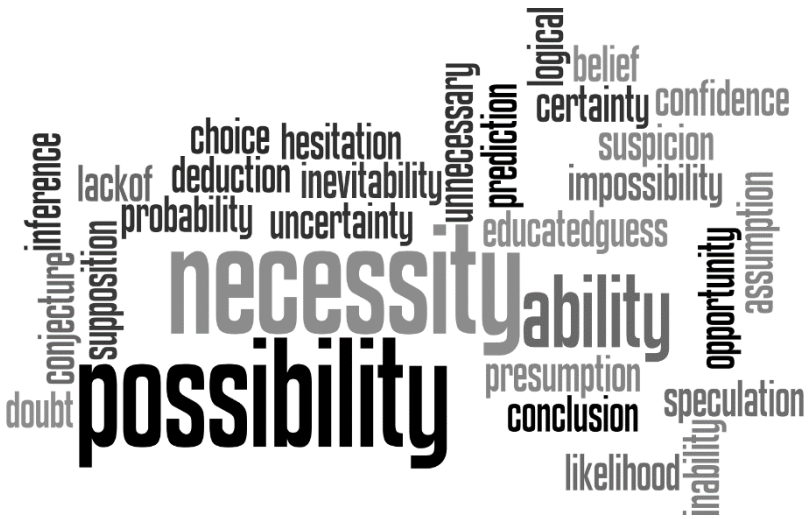
However, all concepts are connected, and a possible case scenario is envisaged: the speaker acts **subjectively** (upon the addressee or himself), deriving from ability, possibility, volition or authority to trigger an action or attitude. We tend to think that this

is with **purpose** (a triggering speech act), which may be created with the help of modal verbs (*can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should*, 3:158):

Jane has shown John the photo so that he can recognize the target.
John took his knife in order that he might operate silently.

7.2.1. Possibility

Possibility may well summarise concepts ranging from near-factual (factual means 'this is the case') to close-to-non-factual ('this is not the case') ones:



Word cloud 13. Possibility

Although the degrees are subjective (e.g. near-impossibility / uncertainty – probability – certainty), these concepts are typically associated with possibility. Modal verbs are often arranged on a scale of possibility (or synonymous terms, such as likelihood): *must, can't, could, may, might* (cf. 72:142–144).

Possibility[9] (probability or likelihood) may be connected to the following central or marginal modals, ranging from the greatest certainty (near-fact) to uncertainty:

1. strong likelihood, deduction; certainly true (*must, can't, have to*):
   You must be exhausted.
   You must have caught cold on the river.
   The news can't be true. (I don't believe it, out of question, I'm sure…)
   He cannot have said that.

2. certain future (*won't*):
   I won't smoke cigars.

3. probability, conjecture, supposition on the part of the speaker (*will*):
   This will be the place.
   You will have heard the news (I presume).

4. probability, conjecture (*would*):

[9] Cf. 3:152–153; 9:152–156; 16:66, 274; 30:31; 33:130–149; 40:201–221; 44:136–152; 45:191; 46:261; 58:107–128; 67:153; 73:165; 74:215–217; 77:283.

That happened a long time ago. I would be (was probably) about 20 at that time.
I don't understand it. No, you wouldn't.
(~ Perhaps it's too difficult, or you're too stupid.)

5. likelihood, ambiguous possibility (*ought to, should*):
   If she started at 6, she ought to be here by 7.
   They ought to have arrived by now.
   The weather should be fine tomorrow, for the sky is clearing.
   They should have arrived by now.

6. puzzlement, impatience, stressed in interrogative; neutral, occasional, logical, general, all-time true possibility or ability (*can*):
   What[10] *can this mean?*

7. strong possibility (*could + conceivably+ well*):
   Fiona could well be right about the importance of Christmas.

8. puzzlement, impatience, stressed in interrogative; neutral possibility or uncertainty (*could*):
   Could this be true?
   What could she mean by that?
   He could not have done such a thing.

9. strong or tentative possibility (*may + conceivably + well*):
   The Does may well be in Doetown tomorrow.

10. existing possibility (*~ perhaps, ~ maybe*) with *may*; in theory, there is no negative form (*mayn't*), yet is used, even if rarely (cf. 7.3.3., frequency of modals):
    Take your coat, it may rain.
    He may have been ill.

11. greater uncertainty, tentative possibility in present and past (*might*), which may or may not be carried out; there is no negative form (**~~mightn't~~*):
    They might come by train.
    She might have been hurt.

12. impossibility, on commenting unreasonable things (*can't, cannot*);
    You can't have (possibly) seen Julia Stiles in Targu Mures.

13. other possibilities with non-modal words and constructions having similar meanings:
    Perhaps it's too good to be true.
    Maybe the dragon is not at home…
    It's (quite) likely to see a turtle around the Great Barrier Reef.
    The likelihood of meeting an alien is close to seeing me young again.
    The chances of meeting Ed Sheeran in person are rather slim.
    I bet Linux is much better than Windows. (informal)

[10] Of course, *What* may be followed by a great number of 'intensifiers: *ever, on earth, in the world, the devil, the hell, in the name of goodness*, not to mention further ones...

Although **possibility** is also connected to Subjunctive Mood, conditional sentences and hypothetical constructions, we have discussed them separately (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) approaching them as non-factual, counterfactual or untrue at the moment of speaking.

Possibility may be understood as **probability**, which is closer to a logical, rational interpretation, based on some evidence, especially associated with *must* and *can't*. Probability may express chances that something is true or it will happen.[11]

Stronger possibility may lead to **logical deduction**, **assumption** (truth related), **supposition**, and possibly expressed by the following modal verbs and structures:

*This **must** be Shrek's wife.* (when there is no other choice left)
*They **have to** tell the truth this time.*
*Fiona **will** turn Shrek into an excellent husband.*
*Heroes **shall** be remembered forever.*
*John Doe **can** endure a lot of hardships.*
*The colonel **can conclude**[12] that the mission is over.*
*You **can't / couldn't** have seen Julia Stiles in person yesterday.*
(negative deduction)
*Marriage **should**[13] be the solution to your problem.* (less confident than *will*)
*Hope **ought to** work when you are desperate.* (less usual than *should*)
*Jane's **bound to** appear any time in front of the colonel.*
*I **expect** you to be more reasonable.*
*I'm **convinced / sure / certain** that Shrek is mostly happy.*
*It **follows from this / that** the plane will crash in 7 minutes.*
***It'll be** a miracle to meet Julia Roberts together with Julia Stiles.*
***Presumably**, the Does will have completed the mission by now.*
*The Army denied all allegation about the Does, **thus / therefore / hence** we cannot submit any extradition request.* (formal, academic)

7.2.1.1. Prediction

Prediction may also be strong possibility, but it is more connected to the present and future (*will, would, shall, should*), as we can reasonably expect it to happen, even if combined with conditional clauses; its strength comes from previous knowledge, habit or experience.

7.2.1.2. Expectation

A similar term is **expectation**, a specific type of possibility (not necessarily reaching a deduction or conclusion), which may stem from prior knowledge or correct assessment of the current circumstances.

7.2.1.3. Certainty

Certainty is the strongest type of possibility, which is **void of doubt**, as it is typically evidence-based. 'Certainty' regarding the future may lead to '**inevitability'**, hence we can include *will*, *would* or *shall*. A scale for modal verbs is the following:

[11] 42:66, 49:68–69.
[12] Or assume, presume, estimate.
[13] *Should* is not used when the statement may displease the speaker, cf. 33:149.

100%		
	must	*can't*
	have got to	*couldn't*
	need	
	will	*won't*
	would	*wouldn't*
	shall	
	could	
	should	
	ought to	
	may	*may not*
	might	*mightn't*
0%		

Table 88. Possible scale of certainty

7.2.1.4. Informed guesses

Some grammar books mention **informed guesses**, which are less direct and rather tentative:

Might it be possible for Jane to have got lost in the jungle?

7.2.1.5. Uncertainty

Uncertainty or uncertain possibility may be expressed with a multitude of expressions:

I (just) can't see how …
I don't think so / that …
I doubt that …
It's (highly) unlikely that …
It's not likely that …
There's little chance / possibility for …
There's not much chance to …

7.2.1.6. Speculation

Speculation (or expectation) may be regarded as a weaker type of certainty, expressed by:

- ***can / can't, can't have*** + III. (present and past);
  John can be a real nuisance.
  Jane can't be here.
  They can't have been married for 30 years.
- ***must, must have*** + III. (present and past);
  A Porsche or Ferrari must be expensive.
- ***should / shouldn't, should / shouldn't have*** + III. (present and past);
  She should be here any minute.
- ***ought to / ought to have*** + III. (present and past);
  The newly-weds ought to have booked Caesar's Palace by now.
- ***could / could have*** + III. (present and past);
  Life in the jungle could be harsh.
- ***might, might have*** + III. (present and past);
  We might try to open the bottle with a ladle…

Illustration 41. We might try...

Past constructions may easily express negative feelings (anger, annoyance, irritation, criticism). The negative forms usually express impossibility ('I can't accept that…').

7.2.1.7. Ability

Ability is an important concept,[14] which is "best considered a special case of possibility" (36:221) or labelled as 'extrinsic', "theoretical possibility" (38:129); this probably means that it can be 'activated' anytime. This is possible, because ability is defined as (80:5):

1. "suitable or sufficient power" => strength
2. "capacity to do something" => inherent capacity, capability, possibility
3. "legal competency", => talk about permission
4. "a special power of the mind, a faculty" => knowledge, know-how, natural
5. "possession of the means or skill to do something" => skill, know-how
6. "talent, skill, or proficiency in a particular area"[15] => learned, natural

Although ability may be expressed by various verbs and expressions (*be capable of, knows how to, manage, succeed*), it is most typically associated with *can, could* and *be able to*, including their negative versions as well (*can't, couldn't, be unable to*), which usually express lack of ability. These may refer to past, present or future, displaying a wide range of subtypes:

1. physical ability, durable skill (11:407):
   No one can lift that crate.
   I can carry two sacks of potatoes in a wheelbarrow.

[14] 41:97–102, 42:66–67, 43:114, 74:215–217.
[15] https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/ability, 24. 02. 2017.

2. mental (cognitive, linguistic, etc.) ability / competence:
   You can tell she's happy because she's reloading her gun.
   We can all remember that infamous scene in the movie.
   I can fully understand those readers who set this book on fire.
   You can guess how many they are.

3. instrumental ability:
   Fewer and fewer people can scythe nowadays.
   One of my best friends can play the oboe professionally.

4. ability associated with senses (*can + see, hear, feel, taste, smell*):
   I can't see you but I can hear you well.

5. modal (in)ability:
   "No one can come to Me…"
   You can do some good, for a change.

6. talking about permission:
   Passengers can have refreshments any time.

7. capability, possibility, obligation (in the form of 'hidden' request):
   She can be very fast (if she wants to).
   She can be the chosen one.
   Can you reach for the knife? (cf. 30:30)

8. occasional / sporadic ability (15:205):
   If cornered, Jane can be very dangerous.

9. single / particular / surprising ability (involving overcome of difficulty): *be able to, manage, succeed*; the negative scale is represented by *fail, unable, couldn't*;

10. **conditional** or **tentative** ability is associated with **opportunity** or free choice (types of possibility connected to future), expressed by modal verbs (*can, could*) or certain phrases:
    If you want / would like / decide to …
    It's up to you (to decide)
    It's your call / choice / decision
    Nobody will stop you if …
    The choice is yours.
    You will have the opportunity / possibility to …
    You're free to whatever you like / wish.

- the temptation (financial, moral, ethical, social, etc.) may remain theoretical or become strong enough anytime to trigger an event or reaction, hence the ability / possibility aspect.

7.2.2. Obligation

Obligation or deontic necessity stems from an external authority, ranging from orders and prohibitions to requests and advice. We have collected various speech acts that may be synonymous terms with the previous ones:

Word cloud 14. Obligation

Obligation[16] may or may not take into consideration the possibility or ability of the addressee; **commands** and **orders** only express an authoritative power, hence the tentative aspect is diminished, deriving from external or internal **necessities**; the strongest type of command is **prohibition**, but it may turn milder (**request**, **advice**) or **tentative** (**promise** or **threat**), tailored to the needs of authority or power relations of the interlocutors. It is typically associated with directives (37:685), expressed by:

1. impression that the obligation is being or will be fulfilled, typically imposed by the speaker (*must*):
   We must fill in the form.
   You must see my new flat. (usually for one particular occasion)

2. external power or obligation (33:140), giving the impression that the obligation is being or will be fulfilled, which may stem from the speaker's or external authority (*have to* or *have got to*):
   He has got to be there by 8.
   (usually for one particular occasion)
   She had (got) to be there by 8.
   When did you have to fill in this form?
- when the source of power is not clear, *must* and *have to* are interchangeable;

3. necessity (*need*):
   I need hardly tell you that I love you.
   You needn't worry about that.
   I need hardly / scarcely tell you…
   He needn't have been in such a hurry after all.
   I wonder if we need be present.
- *need* is also used for statements of doubt or hoping for a negative answer:
  Need she come tomorrow?

[16] Major sources: 3:149–158, 4:238, 16:274, 33:137–146, 34:72, 37:685, 40:207–232, 72:142–144, 74:215–217.

4. arrangements, plans, (asking for / giving) instructions, definite commands (*am / are / is / was / were to*):
   We are to meet at 5.
   You are always to knock before you enter my room.
   The traffic regulations are to be observed.
   Am I to wait?
   She was to have given up smoking.
   (arrangement not carried out, although planned)

5. regulations, legal documents, commands for the 2nd and 3rd person (*shall*):
   You shall do it immediately.
   The Parliament shall consist of two Houses.

6. weaker obligation, recommendation, duty, correct / sensible action based on conscience or good / common sense (*should*):
   You should keep your promise.
   You should have kept your promise.

7. moral obligation, desirability (*ought to*):
   I feel I ought to help him.
   I ought to have read these books too.

7.2.2.1. Duty

Obligation may take the form of **duty**, which has three options:[17]

1. 'inescapable' duties take the form of orders, commands (*will, shall, must, have to, be obliged, be necessary, am to, are to, is to, was to, were to, need to*) or prohibition (the negative pairs) to express strong obligation; requests may be interpreted as inescapable duties with polite overtones;
2. 'escapable' duties (*should, ought to, had better*), which are milder and may turn to advice, recommendation or concession;
3. absence or lack of obligation (and of prohibition, detailed below), expressed by *needn't, don't have to, haven't got to, be not obliged, not obligatory, not compulsory, is (not) voluntary*.

7.2.2.2. Permission

Authority may be exercised in the form of **permission**, leading to the following options:

I. asking for permission (requests):

1. *may* expresses a formal request (45:174):
   May I leave earlier?

2. *might* is politer, while *wonder + might* is very polite:
   You might help her.
   I was wondering if I might ask you a favour.

3. *can* is less polite, even colloquial (30:31), while *can + please* is common:
   Can you do me a favour, please?

[17] 40:207, 47:103.

4. possible alternatives are *be allowed to* and *be permitted to*:
   Am I allowed to have two sandwiches?
   Are we permitted to go on holiday in February?

5. *could* is considered to be colloquial, yet it is still politer than *would*:
   Could I have break?
   I couldn't go there, could I?
   Do you think we could get married this year?
- *wonder + could* is very polite:
  I was wondering if I could leave earlier.

6. *would* is a very typical option:
   Would you do me a favour, please?
   Would you like to help me?
   I wish you would invest more in the Communication Department.
   I'd like to leave earlier (if that's possible).
   I'd prefer to leave earlier.

7. *will* is also a popular option:
   Will you do me a favour, please?
   Won't you grab a knife?
   Grab that knife, will you?

8. *need* (hoping for lack of necessity, asking for permission not to carry out):
   Need I sharpen the knife?

II. granting / giving permission are basically formulated with the same modal verbs and phrases, although short answers and question tags may change (due to various degrees of politeness:[18]

1. colloquial overtones:
   Can I go out and play?

2. standard options:
   Might / Can / Could I have this knife changed? Yes, you can.

3. a more authoritative option:
   May I have this knife changed? Yes, you may.

4. over-politeness, diffidence:
   Might I borrow your pen?
- reducing over-politeness:
  The intern asked if he might borrow the colonel's pen.
  (reported speech)
  The colonel replied that he could.
- alternative (longer) versions are considered to be even politer.

5. granting permission is possible by stock phrases as well:
   By all means.

[18] 4:238, 36:816.

Certainly, as you have the receipt.
Yes, of course.

6. indirect refusal:
   ***Actually**, this is a nice try (but I cannot do that).*
   ***As a matter of fact**, she is way above your league.*
   ***I'm afraid,** this is not possible.*

7. talking about permission:
   We are allowed to smoke here.
   Passengers can take a handbag on board.
   Under the law you may take the fifth.[19]

8. refusing permission (*be not permitted, can't, be not allowed, may not, couldn't*):
   It is not permitted to talk like that.
   You are not allowed to smoke in here.
   Students may not use their phones during exams.
   I couldn't enter the building because of the guard.

7.2.2.3. Concession

Concession is a special type of granting partial permission; it is often expressed with *may, might* or certain expressions with *will*:

*You **may** try harder, **but** he has already finished the job.*
*You **may** be right, **but** he's my husband.*
***Whatever** faults he **may** have, I **still** love him.*
Try as you might, but I won't join you.
***Try as you might**, you could still fail.*
***Try as you will, but** I can't allow you to do that.*
***Try as you would, but** it is still unacceptable.*
***Try as he may**, he is doomed to failure.*
*You **might** know the answer, **but** that's not enough.*
***Say what you will**, you won't pass.*

7.2.2.4. Requests

Requests offer a "far greater choice whether to act as indicated" (37:696), while **commands** leave no room for any choice; however polite, requests may be viewed as 'extended' imperatives (cf. 42:223); requests may nevertheless turn to offers, suggestions, invitations, even leading to advice (modality combined with weak verb meaning).

7.2.2.5. Inadvisability

Inadvisability is probably best exemplified with *had better not*, which is not a polite option suggesting warning, threat ('or else…'):

There are strings in the human heart that had better not be vibrated.
(Charles Dickens)

[19] Cf. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution; this refers to the Fifth Amendment to the US Constitution, according to which no person "shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself". 29. 09. 2017.

7.2.2.6. Prohibition

Prohibition is another emphasised form of (negative) obligation, associated with **inadvisability**; it may be imposed by the speaker or an external authority (44:150):

- **[aiw]** ***not allowed***:
  You are not allowed to smoke in here.
- **[aiw]** ***not permitted***:
  Nobody was permitted to enter without a card.
- **[aiw]** ***not forbidden***:
  Vicks inhalers are forbidden in Japan.
- **[aiw]** ***not prohibited*** (formal):
  Smoking is prohibited in restaurants.
- **[aiw]** ***not banned***:
  Many commercials are banned for various reasons.
- **[aiw]** ***not to*** (instruction):
  Rookies are not to disobey veterans.
- ***mustn't*** (explicit, strong, imposed by the speaker):
  You must not break the law.
- ***can't, cannot*** (explicit, strong):
  John cannot disrespect authority.
- ***may not*** (formal, official notices):
  Visitors may not talk to the guards on duty.
- ***might not*** (formal):
  Patients might not leave the premises unattended.
- ***will not*** or ***won't***:
  You won't marry him because I say so!
- ***shall not, shan't*** (biblical style):
  You shall not kill.
- **should** or **ought to**, followed by *stay away, refrain*, etc.:
  Teenagers should refrain from smoking.
- ***shouldn't*** (weaker, imposed by the speaker, disapproval, advice):
  You shouldn't have cheated.
- ***ought not to*** (disapproval, advice):
  People ought not to have become so greedy.
- ***had better not*** (underlying threat, warning, urgency):
  You'd better not call Saul.
- ***don't*** (negative imperative):
  Don't drink and drive.
- ***No*** … (signs, notices):
  No smoking.

The next logical step is that there are expectations, trust regarding obligation, request or prohibition to act accordingly or properly. Fulfilling the expectations may lead to reward,[20] or it only strengthens the personal or impersonal authority. Not fulfilling the expectations my lead to 'retaliation', 'punishment', etc., which are linguistically expressed by:

- reproach, admonition, scolding, which express (much) higher expectations than demonstrated up to the present moment: *might, should*;

[20] It is interesting why *reward* seems to be under-represented linguistically compared to punishment, but this is beyond our scope; however, we tend to think that the modality ceases, as fulfilment is factual.

You should behave, you know…

- past criticism, expressing dissatisfaction, reproach, etc. about obligations not carried out or below the expected results: *couldn't, weren't allowed, shouldn't have* + III., *might have* + III., *could have* + III.:
  You shouldn't have left your umbrella in the cab.

7.2.2.7. Advice

Advice[21] is the example par excellence for the fuzziness (subjectiveness) of modality and speech acts. It may express suggestion, offer, invitation, request, recommendation, promise, threat, possibility, etc., differing from person to person.

By and large, it may be associated with lack of authority, but it may also try to hide (not wishing to expose) authority, exemplified below (cf. 2:162–163):

- ***must*** (very emphatic advice):
  You must never forget who you really are!
- ***should*** (not)
  I think you should consider the contingency plan.
- ***ought*** (not) ***to***
  The colonel thinks that the attack ought to be launched at dawn.
- ***would*** (not)
  It would be better to quit now.
  It would be a good thing / idea (to) stop now.
  I wouldn't recommend it even if it is promising at first.
- ***need*** (not)
  I need hardly tell you how much I love you.
  I think you need (to) reconsider the marriage proposal.
  You might need a couple of shrinks for the entire battalion.
- ***had better*** or ***had better not***
  You'd better listen to what he wants to say.

There are a few non-modal options for advice:

- verbs: *advise, recommend, be advised, be recommended, suggest*;
- special questions:
  Why don't you …? Why not …? How about …?
- conditional, subjunctive or hypothetical structures:
  If you take my advice, get rid of Jane Doe.
  If I were you, I wouldn't think twice about the marriage proposal.
- expressions:
  There's no need to be rude.
  It was wrong of him to avoid her.

7.2.2.8. Suggestion

Suggestion (3:158) overlaps with advice (or even warning, based on verb meaning), although it may be discussed separately:

- ***might*** (not)
  You might be a bit more attentive, you know.
- ***will*** (not)
  I think you will handle it.
- ***would*** (not)

[21] Major sources: 2:162, 3:150, 33:138–143, 40:228, 74:215–217.

Would you read the e-mail I sent you yesterday?

- ***shall*** (not)
  Shall I listen to him?
  Shall we stop for a drink at this inn?
- ***can*** (not)
  Sometimes Jane can hit the nail on the head, so think about it.
- ***could*** (not)
  You could smile, for a change.

7.2.2.9. Promise and threat

Promise, alternating with **threat**, stems from the relationship between the persons involved, the situation or subjective interpretation (which may not be accurate):

I will give the money back to you.
I won't spend too much.
I will sue you if you come closer than 100 yards.
I will kill you for this.
I said I would do it.
You shall have the money back on Friday.
I'll invite your mother-in-law to our place next week.

Promises may be both hypothetical and polite social gestures, but they may turn ironical if they contradict reality (88:231). As reality is often harsh, people play 'games', which are "both necessary and desirable" (90:61); linguistically, these games take the form of polite expressions, downtoners, softeners or hedges (37:708), conditionals, hypotheticals, etc. (see Chapter 5 and 6 or 7.2.5.

7.2.2.10. Recommendation

A further term associated with promise is **recommendation**, which is "good based on previous experience" (51:127–153); similarly, we can mention **proposal** of ideas and plans ('it will be good because…'), on the negative scale, we have **warnings** or **threats** (37:687, 3:155):

- modal options:
  This can be useful, you know.
  You could use a hammer.
  We should launch the attack at dawn.
  Shrek ought to have been nicer in preparing for Christmas.
  We would be better off leaving the premises when the bomb is set.
  You may (just) as well call her a liar.
  We might (just) as well have abandoned the positions.
  You must focus.
  We will follow the procedure.
  No one shall eat before washing the hands.
  It's better not to overlook the details.
  You'd better stay out of this.
  (quite strong, used when negative consequences are expected, 37:692)
- non-modal (remote, tentative, hypothetical) options:
  Why not try this?
  Why don't you try on these?
  If I were you, I'd marry her.
  It's time they commenced the attack.

7.2.3. Inevitability – Volition

The third central concept is arguably **inevitability** (75:115) or **volition**, which is connected to four modals difficult to describe: *will, would, shall* and *should*. The concepts in the table below are all connected to the central idea and we have collected them during the study of modal verbs:

Word cloud 15. Inevitability – volition

Inevitability may stem from habits, routines or typical behaviour, and it is scaled according to the strength involved.

7.2.3.1. Willingness

Willingness may be expressed by all four modals: *will, would, shall, should* (in reported speech); they may be connected to **ability**; a frequent option is to imply conditionals (46:261):

If you listen to me, you will get rich.
She will talk for hours on end. (literary) => habit, insistence

Would refers to past habits, tendencies and is rather literary in style, compared to *used to*.

7.2.3.2. Determination

Determination is connected to *will, shall, should*:

I 'will do as I like.
I will 'never do that again.
Will you sing tonight?
You 'shall marry him. (~ I insist on your marrying him.)
They ordered that he should be present at once.

7.2.3.3. Wish

Wish expresses desire (*could, would*) with varying degrees in intention and when the fulfilment depends on the circumstances; it is easily associated with conditional, hypothetical, tentative expressions or subjunctive formulas:

Would to God…
I wish you would help me just this once time.
I wish we would stop discussing modals.
I would have liked to be there.

I wish I could speak Spanish.
I wish he could have come.
May all your dreams come true!
You may as well find happiness.
I wish you may succeed in your exam.
I wish you might come to see me every day. (highly unlikely)
I wish I might have seen the play.
Shall I help you? (asking about somebody's wish or preference)

7.2.3.4. Preference

Preference expresses the more or most favoured option (3:159):

You had better stay out of this. (~ had best)
I'd like you to listen to me very carefully: no fight tonight.
I would just as soon remain in the barracks.
Sooner than marry a politician, she would live in a nunnery.
(emphasised inversion)
I would rather listen to Hans Zimmer's soundtracks than trendy hits.
I would sooner watch a Pepsi vs. Coca Cola commercial than a documentary.

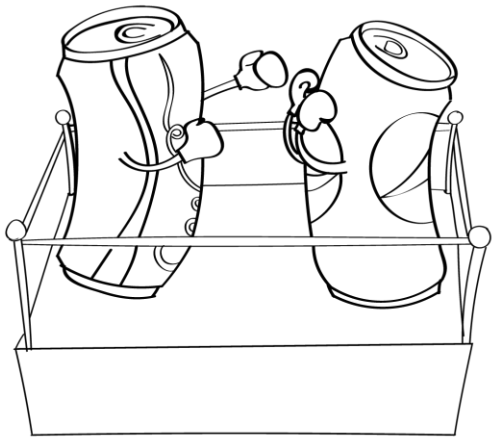


Illustration 42. I'd sooner... Pepsi-Coke

7.2.3.1. Hopes

Hopes are specific wishes, opening new possibilities on the scale of politeness (3:157). They are linked to promises, and are typically combined with *may, might, will, would*:

One may think that she is happy, yet … (formal)
If I might see Jane again, I would ask her out. (formal)
I hope you will understand it one day. (less formal)
I hope this would be of help.
I hope we may meet again soon.
I hope you may be lucky this time.
We hope she might meet her husband soon.
They hope one day a miracle will happen.

If we accept Exupéry's statement,[22] wishes can only turn factual if we devise a plan, which is the next stage.

7.2.3.2. Intentions

Intentions refer to plans regarding the future, and they may refer to immediate or near future or more distant plans:

I'll get the door.
I will go to the Niagara Falls (one day).

7.2.3.3. Insistence

Insistence (or **refusal**) offers a wide range of options, as it is connected to strong determination, obstinacy, etc.; if this type of volition is frequent, it may be labelled as habitual or characteristic behaviour (coming close to inevitability), whose frequency may be disturbing to others, leading to criticism or irritation (67:154), in which case the modal verb is stressed (*will, would*); willingness may turn to insistence in the form of a conditional clause:

If you 'will listen to others, you'll end up in jail.
Boys will be boys.
Accidents 'will happen. (inevitably)
I won't agree to it.
This penknife won't cut properly.
The garlic wouldn't peel.

Although both *would* and *used to* express past habits, repeated actions (cf. Past Simple), the former one may still happen (although less frequently) in the present (40:234).

7.2.3.4. Refusal

Negative insistence may be described as **refusal**, **unwillingness** or **reluctance** (35:36), exemplified by *won't* and *wouldn't* (or *will* + weak verb with negative connotation), although these modals are ambiguous: they may also refer to incapacity or inability:

I won't do that, whatever you're saying.
The door wouldn't open, so the Does jumped out of the window.

7.2.3.5. Indifference

Indifference (3:159) may signal total lack of involvement: *may, may as well, might, might as well:*

You might as well stay overnight, I don't care.

7.2.3.6. Surprise

Surprise (positive or negative) and indignation (negative) is typically associated with *should*:

How should I know Jane's phone number?
It's odd that Shrek should behave like a charming companion!

7.2.3.7. Commissives – offer

Commissives are connected to volition, and we can mention offers and invitations combined with modal verbs in this respect.

[22] Antoine de Saint-Exupéry: "A goal without a plan is just a wish."

As for **offer**, the speaker would like to offer something "beneficial for the listener" (37:699):

Can I bring you a glass of water?
Could I be of any help?
If I might say so, you are gorgeous.
Shall I wash the dishes, darling?
Shall we join the others?
I'll get you a napkin in no time.
Won't you need it later?)
Would you mind my opening the door?
It wouldn't bother me to put the kettle on.

Grammar books for non-native speakers mention that a polite answer to offers is *Yes please.* (37:713), while refusal is *No thanks*.

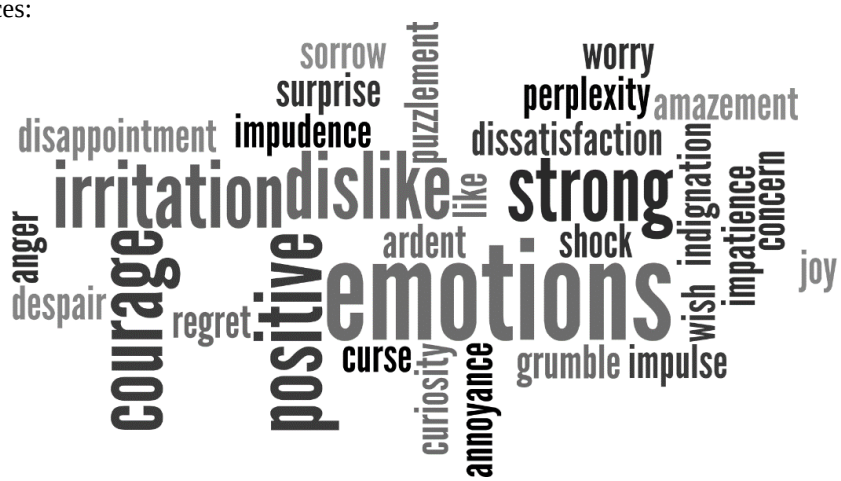
7.2.3.8. Commissives – invitation

Invitations (3:156) may be hardly separated from offers (34:72) or opportunities (37:701), because the combination of modal verb and weak verb is still influenced by the context and the relationship between the speakers; however, the list of offers may change to invitations:

Can I book a flight to Paris for two?
Could you make some time to enjoy the show?
Will you join me for dinner?
Won't you drop by next week for a coffee?
Would you like to visit the museum?
I wish you could see my new house.
You must listen to this new album. (emphatic)
You'll have to pay me a visit soon. (emphatic)

7.2.4. Emotions

Emotions are strongly connected to volition, and the previously discussed hopes, wishes, preferences naturally have emotional overtones. However, as these categories are subjective, only those concepts have been listed below which we considered to display emotions more intensely than anything else and we could find examples for them in our sources:



Word cloud 16. Emotions

We can categorise emotions as strong or weak, but we have also noticed that – as far as grammar is involved – negative emotions are more frequently used than positive ones; more than that, neutral or positive emotions can easily turn to negative ones:

1. surprise turning to indignation (33:150):
   I wonder why you should behave like that.
   How should I know about that?
   Nobody knows why he should have done it.
   I regret that he should be so rude.
   Why should I know about the sales?
2. courage to impudence:
   How dare you say such a thing? She daren't do it.
   You are tired, I daresay.
   He daren't have done it alone.
3. carelessness to admonition or reproach:
   You might be a little more attentive.
   You might have told me about that.

7.2.5. Remoteness

Although many grammar books try to prove that the modal verbs pairs (*can-could, may-might, will-would, shall-should*) are not 'present' and 'past' pairs, non-native speakers are puzzled in this respect, as they can easily 'prove' it:

*I **can** talk to Jane **today**.*
*I **could** talk to Jane **yesterday**.*

This idea is unfortunately supported by dictionaries which list modal verbs among irregular verbs, and *can* is found in the first column, while *could* is in the second. However, it is easy to contradict it with proper examples:

I'm lost now. Could you help me?
She can't have seen my brother yesterday, as he is in Darjeeling now.

Yet the question persists: what is the relationship between *can* and *could*? Most explanations make use of politeness, which may work well, but it is still not enough. The best explanation we have found so far is that each and every modal verb "is fundamentally grounded in the moment of speaking, at the point of Now" (75:102), so they are all 'present', and the concept of 'remoteness' describes the relationship between the pairs. This remoteness may be understood on multiple levels.

Different grammar units actually deal with these remote concepts (present tenses versus past tenses, factual structures versus conditional, hypothetical ones, and polite expressions versus neutral or non-polite ones), but after having discussed them separately, it is worth 'bringing them together' with the help of modals.

7.2.5.1. Remote in time

Temporal remoteness is connected to tenses (Chapter 2) first and foremost:

1. present / future: *can, may, will*:
   You can help me. (now or when time comes)
2. past (*could* + I., *would* + I., *might* + I.):
   Lauren Jelencovich could perform Nightingale *without wearing the traditional veil in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia in 2017.*
3. past (modal + perfective *have*):
   Yanni must have heard Lauren Jelencovich sing before 2010.

Yanni could have heard Lauren Jelencovich sing as early as 2003.
Yanni might have heard Lauren Jelencovich sing even earlier than 2003.
Yanni can't have heard Lauren Jelencovich sing before 2000.

7.2.5.2. Remote in possibility

Remoteness in possibility (or from facts) leads us to tentative, conditional, and hypothetical cases:

You may be surprised to hear that Fiona considered Shrek a prince.
You could do that, if you were more diligent.
I wish I might see Lauren Jelencovich perform live in our town.

Conditional and **hypothetical** formulations multiply the options of modality, highlighting its **tentative** aspect: *if there is / were / would be* ability, possibility, obligation, volition in a standard or (over-)polite setting. Thus it seemed logical to dedicate separate chapters to conditional and hypothetical constructions which often make use of modal verbs (Chapter 5 and 6).

7.2.5.3. Remote in volition or emotion

Remote in volition / emotion is connected to insistence ('*will*) or even indifference (*may as well*):

I'll go on a world tour (one day).
You may as well watch the Planet Earth *TV series.*

7.2.5.4. Remote in relationship / obligation – politeness

Social remoteness is a rather intricate one, having many linguistic forms; however, we only mention here the importance of politeness expressed by modal verbs. **Politeness and remoteness** are exemplified in the following modal questions and answers (36:816):

Might I stop for a minute? Yes, you may. No, you may not.
Would you do me a favour? Yes, I will. No, I won't.
Could I leave now? Yes, you can. No, you can't.

As remoteness is deeply rooted in interrogative or negative structures (), but reported (or indirect) speech is also about remoteness ('It's not me, but he who said that …').
Thus **politeness** may take an interrogative form (cf. requests), but on a large scale there are other options as well (cf. 41:410–413), as
:

- requests:
  Could you tell me the time?
- specific modal structures (e.g. *had better, should, ought to*):
  We'd better listen to his advice.
  I think we should follow the same path.
  A CEO ought not to be too condescending.
- specific words for politeness; the most obvious one is *please*, which is an important and widely used softener (37:713); it can accompany directives and modal verbs successfully.
  Could you lend me your car, please?
- negative structures, found in the form of indirect imperatives as well:
  Don't you think this is nice?
  I don't think I can tell you the time
- distancing structures (hedging):

*I **was wondering** where to spend the holidays.*
*I **thought** that this is the best solution.*

- continuous verb forms:
  Are you doing anything special next Saturday?
- combining previous options:
  *I **was wondering if we could** discuss a very delicate topic.*
  ***If** you **would just** listen to me, **please**.*
- while the imperative form is considered more than impolite, the combination of modal verbs with certain intensifiers for politeness (*so kind, perhaps*, etc.) may turn so polite that it is already embarrassing, sarcastic or humorous (cf. 'insincerity' resulting from breaking social conventions. 88:231).

The general rule is that on the scale of politeness the longer the utterance the politer it may become and the more distant a modal verb is from certainty, volition or obligation, the politer it may turn, exemplified below:[23]

PERMISSION	**ORDER / REQUEST FOR HELP**
I wonder if I might date your daughter.	*Help Jane!*
	Help her, will you.
VOLITION	*Help her, please.*
I'd be happy if you would answer me.	*Will you help her?*
	Would you help her?
POSSIBILITY	*Can you help her, please?*
You couldn't help me, could you?	*Could you help her?*
	Would you mind helping Jane?
	Will you be good enough to help Jane?
	Will you be so kind as to help Jane?
	Would you be so kind as to help Jane?
	I wonder if I might ask you to help Jane.

Table 89. Politeness

The improper use of modal verbs may lead to rudeness instead of the intended politeness (30:194):

*You **may** take a break. (~ Only because I allow it.)*

As these categories are subjective, our attitude towards them is also subjective, so this offers an explanation why the same proposition may be interpreted as both a promise and a threat (depending on the circumstances and the relationship between the speakers):

I will call your mother.

The implications of the sentence above are manifold. In this respect we would like to return to Fillmore's famous article (88:218–256) from 1971, where he explains the importance of considering the 'sincerity' aspect of sentences, knowing that modal verbs are used to express various speech acts.

Modality, speech act, modal verbs and expressions contribute directly in creating utterances which are considered to be polite: "Modal verbs often hedge or soften the force of speech act which may threaten the listener's dignity or self-esteem." (37:709), so speakers often choose to distance themselves from 'direct impact', making use of the remote options, which is why consider politeness vital in explaining modal verbs.

[23] 2:154, 36:233.

7.3. The semantics of modal verbs

Language contains an immense number of words (without entering the debate what counts as a word), which are used effortlessly by native speakers with "speeds above a hundred words a minute … communicating some 30 or more messages per minute" (75:29), which is possible because the language system is relatively simple, even if not completely regular.

In our view, the most logical framework of modal verbs (we have met so far) is described by Lewis (75:112–125), although not struggling for a 'comprehensive' view. The first stage is to delimit the modal verbs from the rest, when it is good to remember syntactic features; this results in only nine central modals (marginal modals lack one or more essential features), which may be discussed as pairs.

We have already argued that it is wrong to consider *could, would, should* and *might* as the past forms of *can, will, shall* and *may* (99:97–131), giving the improper example of dictionary entries of the list of irregular verbs, not knowing that Lewis had done that more than two decades prior to that. But he also found the ingenious solution: the four 'past' forms are in fact the **remote pairs**, proving clearly that this theory is applicable, if remote is extended enough. Thus we obtain the following framework:

POSSIBILITY		
'now'	remote in time => 'past' remote socially => politeness remote likelihood	
can	*could*	perceiving existence of possibility logical
may	*might*	volitionally involved in creating possibility speculation
NECESSITY		
must	-	legal => obligation moral => prohibition practical => advice logical => deduction
INEVITABILITY		
'now'	remote socially => politeness remote likelihood remote psychologically => hypothetical	
will	*would*	opinion (the speaker may be wrong) temporal logical
shall	*should**	directly involved in creating inevitability reasonable *extra meanings

Table 90. Modal concepts described by Lewis (1986)

The framework reduces the terms associated with modals in the initial stage of learning immensely, still preserving further possible ramifications (ask for, give permission, etc.). It is also clear that when discussing modals, **objectivity** and **subjectivity** must be included in the explanations, together with 'basic' meaning and meaning deriving from the 'context'. Thus rather subjective categories, such as **politeness** may be discussed in terms of **degrees** instead of absolute rules, offering the chance to compare, for instance, *can, could, may* and *might*. Some might accept *can* as perfectly polite (possibly completed with

please), while others would prefer *could*. At this stage a partial conclusion may be formulated:

> Modal verbs are a very rich and subtle area of the English language. They can all refer to the certainty, possibility or probability of an event, and they can all refer to future time…. Certain modal verbs can also express other areas of meaning. (67:153)

After having discussed modality and speech acts we might have the feeling that all modal verbs can virtually express anything, as all of them served as examples in many cases. This is why we need to discuss each modal verb individually, which is actually the more favoured version of grammar books for non-native speakers.

We have seen that modal verbs are examples par excellence for modality:

- expressing the opinion and attitude of the speaker (30:2);
- reflecting "the speakers' judgement of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true" (36:219);
- it "refers to a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards, or point of view about, a state of the world", so modals "say whether something is real or true, or whether it is the subject of speculation rather than definite knowledge" (37:638).

7.3.1. Time, tense and modal verbs

The importance of English modal verbs has been clear since presenting the verb system. The rationale to discuss them separately after the verb and tense system stems from the fact that many of the basic rules do not apply to them, which is why we need distinctive 'rules' for them.

To start with, we have to accept that describing them may easily turn into complete chaos. The relationship between them and other verbs may overlap in form, function and meaning, leading to a desperate attempt to tackle them either individually, with a special focus on their form (affirmative, interrogative and negative) and meaning (past, present, future reference), or constantly comparing them to each other to reveal (hidden) shades of meaning.

As a full and systematic approach is near-impossible, we will try to follow a 'personalized' approach for each modal verb, although it makes little sense to always follow the same track; sometimes the negative or interrogative form is more relevant (directly contributing to a change in meaning), sometimes the 'past' construction of two different modal verbs may overlap.

Similarly to other verbs, modal verbs are important in tenses, conditional structures, hypothetical structures, passive voice, sequence of tenses and reported speech. However, as we dedicate a separate chapter for each listed item, modal verbs are not systematically presented in connection with these categories, except when it is absolutely necessary, not to draw the attention from our primary aim: to understand the essence of their modifying effect when used in affirmative, interrogative, negative structures on the timeline of past, present, and future.

Semantically, we can distinguish various types of modality involving modal verbs (epistemic, deontic, dynamic, etc.), which can grammatically convey 'interpersonal meaning' (81:6), even if "many language areas, such as aspect and modality resist easy rule formation" (81:55).

Even Lewis accepts that modals represent "one of the most complicated problems of the English verb" (75:99), but in cases where the central area is identified we can discuss marginal uses as well. The reason why modal verbs can refer to non-factual and non-temporal situations is that they describe a special attitude of the speaker towards facts in a

special time frame: this time frame is 'now', more precisely when the speaker's utterance is voiced, paraphrased as "in the present circumstances, my judgement is that it is possible / necessary / desirable that …" (75:102).

Consequently, it is important to discuss modal verbs compared to the past – present – future timeline, but also how they express affirmative, negative and interrogative form, which may all have rather different meanings. They are 'special' and form a separate category of verbs, whose meaning is context-based, which is at least the length of an entire clause or sentence, if not a paragraph. As such, when interpreted or translated, we are faced with three scenarios:

1. word for word translation:
   I can do that. (~ be capable to, be able to, be possible to)
2. word for affix (suffix):
   Maybe she can help. (meaning embedded in a suffix of possibility)
3. word for 'nothing':
   Could you help me, please?

- the polite meaning of *could* may take the form of an imperative or a neutral present tense void of modal marker during translation.

Meanings of modal verbs usually turn from bad to worse, as grammar books usually present them one by one: for instance, *can* is described with the help of concepts as ability, possibility, permission, other speech acts and stock phrases.

If we go deeper, we might feel like rubbing salt in the wound, as ability may be split into physical, moral, mental, occasional / sporadic ability (15:205), not to mention competence, skill (which may be durable, cf. 11:407), but the ability may cover a hidden request as well: *Can you reach for the knife?* (cf. 30:30).

More than that, the concept of 'remote' is equally valid for the traditional view of past and present dichotomy and the way people express politeness, when culturally (physically) more distance is kept between the interlocutors or linguistic hedges (*I could say that* …) are used for distancing. This corroborates with Wierzbicka's findings when stating that "the way we speak reflects the way we think", at least at the social level (79:22), and the process is a never-ending change, hopefully evolution.

Similarly, there are multiple possibilities (varying degrees), specific cases (the combination of can with sense verbs or expressing understanding), and when thinking that there can be no more surprises, further meanings stem from can used in the interrogative (politeness, advice, suggestion) and negative forms (prohibition, impossibility), and we also have to mention the intricacies of:

- the remote pair: *could* (the so-called 'whimperative' in 79:25);
- alternate options:
  be able to, succeed to, manage to, fail to, know how, capable of, etc.

These come to support the statement that modal verbs modify the meaning of the strong or weak verb (2:78), adding to them various 'concepts', such as (un)certainty, (im)possibility or politeness.

More complicated is the situation of modals referring to future, as authoritative grammars state that English has no future tense, even if it is mentioned that *will* – followed by the bare infinitive – refers to the future. After all, Palmer correctly remarks that "philosophers have for a long time debated whether the future can ever be regarded as factual, since we can never know what is going to happen." (30:12).

Modal verbs are also remarkable because their meaning sometimes refers to 'themselves', but sometimes to the proposition (context-based), which is true for their negative and interrogative forms as well. It is clear that modals are complex, as one and the same sentence may express both promise and threat:

If you don't finish your spinach, I can't give you any chocolate.

The sentence above may conceal further traps: first, we have to know about the possibility to use modals in conditional sentences both in the main clause (apodosis) and the subordinate clause (protasis).

For instance, we can mention available options constructed with *should*, *would*, *will*, etc. Secondly, acceptance from both parties that there is an authority (the speaker or an external one) that can validate the effort, and either the promise (*chocolate*) or the threat (*no chocolate*) is carried out. Sadly, this reminds us the importance of confidence regarding the truth value of the statement (85:41).

However, the coup de grace is offered by Lewis when stating that:

> We can never be sure that the range of choices available to each speaker is the same. We can never be sure why the speaker has made a particular choice. Despite these difficulties, we need to recognise that the speaker does make choices, and that grammar is not only a matter of objective fact. (75:44)

The headache concerning modal verbs in their relationship with the tripartite past – present – future division of time may start from 'empiric' observation.

Past and Present tenses discussed in the previous chapter have made use of strong, weak and auxiliary verbs, where the I., II. and III. forms indicated the tense, whereas 'future' was signalled by *will*.

Still, in the case of modal verbs the situation is more complicated in this respect, as virtually any modal verb may refer to past, present and future, detailed in the following.

First, we should start from the possible verb combinations: any modal verb is followed by a I. verb form (short or bare infinitive)[24], and the possible references are:[25]

John could help you.

In this example the reference may be both 'now' or 'any time later', hence we can state that we are faced with a present / future (no clear time indicator), associated with hypothetical or tentative meaning (deriving from modal meaning). In the following example a clearly past reference derives from the context (time indicator):

Jane could fire a gun at the age of three.
(remote => past, context-bound)

[24] Except for marginal modals: *used to, ought (to), have to*.
[25] Disregarding the possibility of interpretation as elliptical sentences (*could … if*, cf. conditional sentences).

Illustration 43. Jane could...

In case we need a more definite past reference (without the help of the larger context), the modal verb is always followed by the auxiliary perfective *have* (which is also I. form) and a III. form weak verb:

John could have helped you.

Perhaps a more visual version is the following:

Ⓜ +	**I.**	Past reference: *Jane **could shoot** at the age of nine.*
		Present reference: *Jane **could shoot** you (now).*
		Future reference: *Jane **could shoot** a thug tomorrow.*
		Atemporal (ability): *Jane **could shoot** a thug anytime.*
	***have* + III.**	Past reference: *Jane **could have shot** you.*

Table 91. Modal verb combinations

As mentioned before, even if certain dictionaries and grammar books include modal verbs in the list of irregular verbs (e.g. I. *can*, II. *could*, III. –), this approach is completely wrong. As described in previous chapters, I. verb forms are connected to Present Simple, imperative or infinite, while II. forms to Past Simple, conditional present or hypothetical present (cf. verb meaning); needless to say that modal verbs do not fit into this division. It would be convenient to squeeze modal verbs into the list (*can – could, may – might, shall – should, will – would*), but it is not possible, as they are inherently void of tense:

*You **can't** believe this.* (present)
*You **can't** have believed this.* (past)

The examples show that *can* is not the 'present pair' of *could*, as both of them may be used in all time references. As they have a single form, there are alternative constructions with similar meanings, which may be used more easily associated with past, present and future:

*She **is not able** to believe this.*
*She **was not able** to believe this.*
*She **won't be able** to believe this.*

We tend to believe that other constructions for modal verbs are used for the same reason (*be allowed to, be permitted to, have to*), although their meaning is much more restricted.

However, *could, would, might* and *should* are all very important in conditional and subjunctive structures (22:287), discussed in previous chapters:

*If needed, John **could help**.*
*If need be, John **could help**.*
*I truly believe that Jane **could become** a four-star general.*

As modal verbs are defective in form, they are not directly linked to tenses expressing various time frames. Thus it is logical to consider them 'timeless' (cf. 30:97), even if they are associated with present, future and past when embedded in sentences, in which case the context helps.

Even if *could* is not the "equivalent in past time of can" (39:18), modals are definitely not characterised by "abnormal time reference" (36:137). It is completely normal that speakers express their opinion at the moment of speaking, so modality is primarily associated with this present ("judgments are made in the act of speaking", 30:63), implying future extension.

Tense-related remarks may be associated with types of modality:

- the proposition of the epistemic modality may refer to past, present or future (30:46);
- the proposition of the deontic modality refers to the future starting during / immediately after the moment of speech (where permission, obligations, etc. are 'activated'), as giving judgements, permissions, or laying obligations are logically linked to the future; consequently, modal verbs associated with deontic meaning basically refer either to the present or the (near) future: "One cannot in the act of speaking give permission, lay an obligation or give an undertaking in the past or in relation to past events." (30:79), unless being in reported speech;
- a definite future reference may be expressed by dynamic modal verbs *will* or *shall* (even if the modality function of dynamic modality is arguable), or the semi-modals *have to, be able, to, be willing to, be allowed to, or be permitted to* (30:47); the explanation is that "one cannot have (non-past) ability or willingness to do things in the past" (30:45);
- ambiguity may rise when modal verbs are associated with the future (30:66), in which case the larger (not necessarily linguistic) context helps in disambiguation:
  John must come tomorrow.
  (epistemic => 'Because he promised to do so.')
  John must come tomorrow.
  (deontic => 'Because the colonel ordered so.')

Even if used in reported speech, the remote pairs only stand for *will, shall, can* and *may* formally; their translation reveals that the meaning is not associated with the future rather than the past:

John will / shall / can / may fly to Neverland tomorrow.
Jane knew that John would / should / could / might fly to Neverland tomorrow.

Thus Palmer draws the conclusion: it is only here that "there is a regular relationship between the present and past tense forms of the modals *will, shall, can* and *may*" (30:44).

Furthermore, the remote forms are used tentatively, hence with present time reference (30:64). But tentativeness (or unreality) are more typically formed with *if* and remote

modal verb forms (yet, not exclusively), thus certain modals may function as formal past versions (30:44).

The fact that not all modals have remote pairs further strengthens the idea that modals are not 'designed' to express only temporal relationships. Some modals, such as *must, ought to, need* and *dare* have no corresponding past forms, even if the non-modal *need* and *dare* have regular variants (*needs, needed*). The other semi-modals are formed in the past based on their constitutive verb: *was / were bound to, was / were able to, had to* (30:44), except for *would rather* and *had better*.

While modal verbs are typically associated with either I. (short infinitive) or *have* + III. (perfect infinitive), they can be followed by continuous verb forms as well, making the setting more 'vivid':

*Jane **can be practising** as I keep hearing gunshots. (~ must)*
*Jane **can be practising** if I keep hearing gunshots. (~ must)*
*John **could be watching** the news as the TV is on. (~ may, will)*
*The colonel **may be sleeping** now.*
*Big Brother **might be watching** you now…*
*In my humble opinion, the Does **should be following** the standard procedure.*
*John **must be sharpening** his knife… Can you hear that?*
*Jane **can't have been joking** when she expressed her wish about the wedding.*
*Jane didn't answer the phone, so she **could have been sleeping**.*
*Big Brother **might have been watching** us for centuries.*
*At 6 a.m. John **should have been waiting** for the enemies on the top of a tree.*
*The Does **must have been killing** the colonel's nerves for ages...*

Palmer observes that "with the modals there is no clear 'literal' sense, and any core meaning has to be deduced" (30:15), and while used in interrogation, only the modality, and not the entire proposition is questioned (30:41). The special meaning of modal verbs is even reflected in question tags:

John must not fail, mustn't he?

Thus it is visible that the tag is meaning-based, as formally it would have required *must*.[26]

7.3.2. Passivization

Grammar books mention how easily modal verbs can be used in passive constructions; one of the main reasons is that they are mostly characterised by "voice neutrality",[27] similarly to auxiliary verbs:

John may help Jane.
Jane may be helped by John.

However, as modal verbs may have epistemic or deontic meanings, the active–passive change is not always neutral (*dare* is problematic, *can* may prove troublesome, and *will* is not neutral), especially when the agent is stated (30:81):

John can count the thugs.
The thugs can be counted after dawn.
Jane might be popped the question any time.
Jane might have been waiting for long for that moment.
John might have been hurt badly in the fight.
This should have been understood by now.

[26] Further details in 30:43.
[27] 30:199, 30:203.

7.3.3. Frequency of modal verbs

The importance of choice may be connected to the number of occurrences, especially when studying a foreign language at different levels. Although data may differ in various sources, it is worth looking into the statistics regarding modal verbs.

For instance, according to the Cambridge Grammar of English, *can* is the most frequent modal verb (37:642), so it seems logical to start learning modal verbs with this one; another source (59:1–68) lists the top 3,000 English words including the following modals:

will (position 35)
would (36)
can (37)
could (57)
should (78)
may (88)
must (120)
need (147, mainly weak verb)
might (151)
shall (166, 'offer', 'suggest')
ought to (1,574)
dare (2,802)

At this stage we tend to think that the higher the frequency, the more situations are possible for a particular modal verb to be used, but non-modal factors still have to be considered.

Will, for instance, is a suitable modal to function as the future operator (a term which may be applied, by and large, to the majority of auxiliaries and modals, involved in forming the negation and interrogation, although 'imported' from logic).

A different type of frequency of modals is illustrated below,[1] where LLC stands for the London-Lund Corpus (LLC) created by Randolph Quirk and Jan Svartvik (left hand column), while ICE-GB is the British component of the International Corpus of English (ICE, right-hand column):[2]

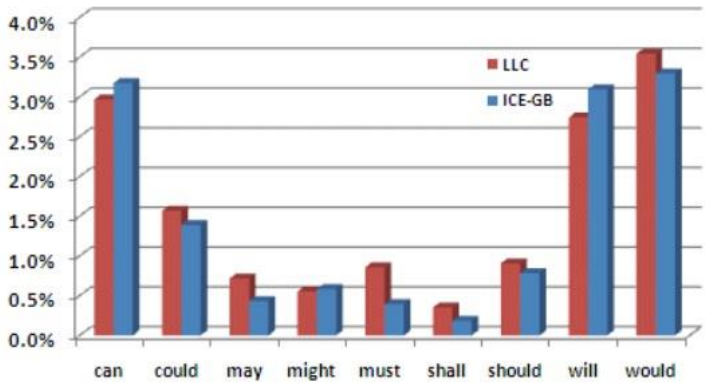


Figure 17. Modal frequency

Those favouring numbers over percentage, may consult Aart's table (77:280) for frequency per million (words):

- *would, 'd* and *wouldn't*: 2,581 + 795 + 394 (spoken) and 2,533 + 182 + 87 (written) occurrences;
- *can, can't* and *cannot*: 2,652 + 792 + 80 spoken, 2,533 + 222 + 316 written;
- *will, 'll* and *won't*: 1,883 + 1,449 + 232 spoken, 3,284 + 361 + 80 written;
- *could* and *couldn't*: more than 2,700 instances;

[1] Source: http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/verb-phrase/modalfindings.htm, 26. 02. 2017.
[2] Source: http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/ice-gb/, 26. 02. 2017.

- *may* is around 2,500 (*mayn't* only 2);
- *should* and *shouldn't* combined are slightly above 2,000;
- *might* has 1,270 occurrences (*mightn't* 3);
- *must* has 1,329 instances (*mustn't* 24);
- *shall* totals slightly above 400 (*shan't* 5).

Whatever their percentage and number, modal verbs play a central role in shaping modality, at which point we should discuss them one by one.

7.3.4. Can

From the outset we should accept a vital remark: "Difference of form implies difference of meaning" thus "it is nonsense to pretend that 'the infinitive of *can* is *to be able to*'" (75:26), and other modal 'pairs' have similar parallel structures.

Can is one of the most widely used modal verbs (the most frequent, 37:642), and its meanings are primarily used in 'present' (followed by I. verb form). However, a clearly past reference associated with *can* is possible, but it is restricted to negative or interrogative forms (followed by *have* + III. verb form).

The core meaning of *can* is associated with **objective possibility**[3] or perceiving the existence of possibility (75:113), within which we can highlight **ability**, even if it is considered to be a marginal modal concept, as speaker's judgement is of little importance. A more 'diplomatic' view is that *can* represents a "semantic merger" of ability and possibility, as in case there is ability, then it is generally possible (77:313):

7.3.4.1. Can – ability

Ability refers the possibility of non-restriction, which is personal and subjective,[4] detailed below:

- physical, moral, mental, instrumental, ability, capacity, capability, competence, know-how, skill (basically durable, 11:407):
  John can remember all the missions.
  Bad things can happen very easily. (non-durable)
  Jane can't scythe. (lack of ability, skill, competence, 30:43)
- "sporadic, occasional ability" (15:205), "existential" (property, 77:291), contingency or "circumstantial" *can*:
  Buffalo can become very dangerous. (even referred to 'existential' modality)
  You can meet famous people at Cafe Blikle in Novy Świat.
- this case is connected to the next category (cf. lack of 'visible' evidence in case of ability versus evidence-based possibility).
- the interrogative form may be puzzling, as ability stands for request (30:23):
  Can you reach for the knife? (~ I think you can, so do it, please.)
- depending on the circumstance, this can turn to "brusque", rather impolite commands (30:71, see below).
- **sense verbs** are typically associated with *can*; non-native speakers tend to omit the modal verb, overlooking the fact that the meanings are obviously different:
  We can't hear as faint noises as dogs can.
  (general ability)
  I can't see in the darkness.
  (general ability or impossibility to distinguish anything in a particular situation)

[3] 75:104, 77:291–294.
[4] I am indebted to Imre Ungvári-Zrínyi for his invaluable remarks on ability.

I can see you now.
(non-durable possibility, similar to Present Continuous, 14:60)
I can't see why you're crying.
(metaphorical impossibility: 'I don't understand it.')

7.3.4.2. Can – (im)possibility

Can associated with sense verbs may reflect both ability and possibility or impossibility (in the present circumstances), exemplified below.

- logical, 'generally and all time true' (67:153), objective or neutral (im)possibility (dynamic, 30:83, 77:292) referring to mostly a single event:
  It's very cloudy. It can rain any time.
- this is consideredto be 'neutral' as the speaker's involvement is hardly visible.
- possibility may have varying degrees (8:182), such as:
  a) hypothetical solutions (using Passive Voice):
  It can be solved…
  … because this has already been done before.
  … I hope so, although it has never been tried before.
  b) very imminent possibilities:
  If you turn right, you can see the castle. (possibility > ability)
- although only animate creatures are associated with ability (30:85), we cannot always separate possibility and ability (neutral and subject oriented possibility).
- temporary, 'sporadic' possibility, leading to criticism (26:66):
  John can be lazy sometimes.
  It can happen that you won't find me at home after 7 a.m.
- (im)possibility may be based on circumstances or decided by the law or rules, not legally possible:[5]
  Say it quickly, as I can only talk on the phone for three minutes.
- supposition, logical deduction combined with distrust, doubt or amazement (22:321):
  Can he behave like that in front of ladies?
  That pale guy can be our contact.
- all these cases may be viewed as expressing 'general truth': whenever the conditions are given, these possibilities may turn to realisation.
- impossibility (physically, morally, mentally, legally not possible, 75:104), associated with the negative form belongs to the epistemic necessity, which is in fact knowledge-based conclusion (77:294); so it expresses a negative probability (22:325) when the speaker is 100% sure (although he may be wrong):
  You cannot be right about that.
  John can't pass the exam; he hasn't learnt one iota.
  (I also know the teacher, so it is impossible to trick her.)
- a positive probability (chances that something is true or it will happen, 42:66) is expressed with *may*:
  The prisoner may be telling the truth.
- past impossibility is expressed by *can't + have* + III. verb form:
  Jane can't have met John in 2001. (I just don't believe it.)
- the negative form may express 'refusal to act in a certain way' (30:105):
  I feel I can't refuse the cooperation with the Does.

[5] 22:320, 30:103, 75:104.

- the negative form may be part of a construction referring to impossibility stemming from personality or characteristic (30:131):
  I can't help falling in love with you. (Elvis Presley)
  I just can't help smiling.

7.3.4.3. Can – permission

Permission is associated with deontic possibility, possibility of permission, and it is interpersonal. The possibility and permission senses of *can* overlap when it is used instead of *may* (77:293), and possible alternatives for permission expressed by *can* are *be allowed to* and *be permitted to* (cf. 4:245):

- (rather impolite) ask for permission, requests may be associated with *can*, which is the spoken or informal (colloquial) alternative to the politer and formal *may*:[6]
  Can I take it?
- this type of question is usually addressed to very close acquaintances, although not recommended. However, a typical **softener** is used:
  *Can I take it, **please**?*
- the verb may also be changed to sound politer:
  Can I have it?
  Can I have it, please?
- a specific use is connected to courtesy (30:78), connected to (ask for) permission:
  Can I get you a drink?
  Can I ring you back?
- in case permission is granted, the dividing line between expressing permission (granting a request) and giving an order may be thin:
  You can leave now.
  (1. That's not a problem. 2. You are let go.)
  You can help your sister with her homework.
  (1. permission granted 2. reproach 3. order)
- talking about permission (41:100–102):
  We can bring anyone to the party.
  According to the law, you can defend your property.

[6] 11:407, 15:215, 30:71.

Illustration 44. You can defend...

Can is discussed as expressing "freedom of constraint" against the constraint of *can't* (89:104–107), arguing that these are connected to fundamental human experiences, such as physical, moral and social rules, power, opportunity, ability, skill, freedom and wanting (*God can do anything.*), and we have seen that some of them have already been discussed previously, while others are detailed below.

7.3.4.4. Can – indirect speech acts

In these cases, overlaps in meaning are frequent, due to various interpretation possibilities and the relationship between the interlocutors.

- either mild or 'brusque' (impolite) command (30:71):
  Now you can both leave, I have heard enough.
- idiomatic expressions:
  You can say that again.
  You may take it from me.
  You may rest assured.

- mild suggestion, encouragement (10:48) for future (11:419) instead of using the imperative, including even polite refusal or postponement (promise, possibility):
  I'm sure you can become a successful lawyer.
  We can talk about it later.
- strong prohibition (the negative form, 2:84), in which case *can't* is an alternative to *mustn't, not allowed to* or *not supposed to* (11:419):
  You can't bring in weapons.
  You mustn't bring in weapons.
  You are not allowed to bring in weapons.
  You are not supposed to bring in weapons.
- suggestion, advice:
  Can't we (just) stop now for a break?
- as the negative-interrogative form is used when expecting confirmation, suggestion may easily turn to command (30:92, "brusque" or "impolite" 30:71):
  Can't we turn over a new leaf?
- offer to help (8:184), as a special type of suggestion (*can + if*):
  I can clean your glasses if you want me to.
  If need be, we can raise money for the cause.
- uncertainty or doubt (interrogative and negative forms):
  Now honestly, can you believe that he is in love with you?
  Can Jane have hidden the weapon in the attic?
- various (typically negative) feelings, *can* is emphasised:
  a) impatience, annoyance, surprise:
  What can the colonel mean by 'collateral damage'?
  Now, what (on earth) can you tell about all your blunders?
  b) irritation may be felt for typical, habitual actions (8:184):
  You can be so rude sometimes.
  The life and times of your neighbour can be boring, indeed.

7.3.4.5. Can – stock phrases

There are cases when *can* has deeply rooted uses (7:132):

I can't help falling in love with you.
(Elvis Presley, ~ cannot resist the temptation)
Jane can't stand seeing John grinning.
(~ can't bear the sight)

7.3.4.6. Can – quotes and proverbs

If you think you can do it, you can. (John Burroughs)
Whether you think you can, or you think you can't – you're right. (Henry Ford)
Any customer can have a car painted any colour that he wants so long as it is black. (Henry Ford)
In this world nothing can be said to be certain, except death and taxes. (Benjamin Franklin)
You can't make an omelette without breaking a few eggs.
You can't judge a book by its cover.
You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.
You can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar.
You can't have your cake and eat it too.
You can't teach an old dog new tricks.

7.3.5. Could

It has already been mentioned that it is incorrect to consider *could* as the past 'version' of *can* (its 'preterite' form, 17:156), even if the meanings of *can* are often reflected in past uses of *could*. In this respect we can agree that it is similar to *can*, but it is more remote in functions (75:112):

- remote in time => 'past': ability and (im)possibility;
- remote logical possibility => less probability, more tentative and hypothetical, unfulfilled or "unfinished" conditional (30:100); it may also lead to criticism with *could have* + III.;
- remote in social relationship => politeness.

Major uses of *could* are discussed in the following:

7.3.5.1. Could – ability

- physical (general 34:52) ability in the past:
  John could lift two sacks of sand yesterday. (context-based past)
- however, the context may express actuality, referring to present (30:96):
  John, how could you make it in time?
- the grammatical past ability does not necessarily mean that it is fulfilled.
  John could have lifted two sacks of sand yesterday. (grammatical past)
- mental ability in the past:
  Jane could write at the age of five.
- 'tentative' (present or future) ability (*could* combined with *if*), which may express various concepts (suggestion, hesitation, 15:211):
  She could help you if you asked her.
- hypothetical past ability (or possibility), which may turn to criticism, as it is unfulfilled (46:274), so the criticism is for not doing things (41:102):
  She could have helped you if you had asked her. (Why didn't you ask her?)

7.3.5.2. Could – (im)possibility, probability

- present possibility or mild suggestion, encouragement as an alternative to imperative (5:181, 10:48), although less certain than *can* (hence more tentative and polite, cf. 30:101):
  Don't contradict John, as he could be right.
  You could help me.
  I'm sure you could become a successful lawyer.
- in this case *may* or *might* are possible alternatives, expressing present condition (cf. Chapter 5).
- possibility may take the form of spontaneous ask for help:
  You couldn't lend me €150,467 for that Ferrari, could you?
- supposition, deduction combined with distrust, doubt or amazement (22:321):
  Could he behave like that in front of ladies?
  That bleeding guy could be telling the truth.
- impossibility, associated with the negative form; in this case the speaker is 100% sure:
  You cannot be right about that.
- impossibility with the negative form of *could* (at least the speaker is sure about that) or unwillingness (26:66):
  John couldn't be right about that.

John couldn't possibly leave his comrade behind.

- when *could* is combined with *all, the only one, nearly, almost*, it is associated with semantic negation (30:95):
  All Jane could do was to call for John.
  She knew that John was the only one who could negotiate successfully.
  John could almost wash all the dishes before Jane arrived home.
  Jane could nearly be taken by surprise during the first day of the mission.
- past possibility (context-based):
  John could be there when the incident happened.
- past (im)possibility (12:121) or unfulfilled suggestion (*could* + *if*) is constructed with *could* + *have* + III. verb form; in these cases, *could* is less categorical than *can* (22:322):
  The colonel could have helped John.
  The colonel couldn't have known about his desperate situation.
  If she could have been the lead actor, she would have played in the film.
  You could have helped me, if you had really wanted to.
  (unfulfilled possibility, reproach)
- past (im)possibility deriving from logical deduction:
  John could have arrived in Venice by now.
  Jane couldn't marry John because he was nowhere to be found.
  Could she have eaten all the candies in five minutes?

The phrases with *could* actually refer to 'unfulfilled' past possibility, leading to the issue of conditional sentences (Chapter 5); however, it is important to highlight the fact that the past reference mainly derives from the entire construction (modal verb + *have* + III.), rather than the intrinsic meaning of *could*, demonstrated in further uses.

- sense verbs associated with could refer to the past:
  Jane couldn't hear the orders clearly due to the heavy gunfire.
- *could* may be part of a negative comparative structure (8:187, 26:65):
  Jane couldn't be more effective. Look around!
  I know, but she could be even better…
  John couldn't have been luckier (than meeting Jane).

7.3.5.3. Could – permission

- 'tentative' permission (*could* combined with *if*):
  If Jane could be the lead actor, she would play in the film.
- past requests, permissions:
  I could take only two candies from the tray. (I was allowed to…)
  He couldn't use his fingers to count. (He wasn't allowed to…)
- this case is connected to **reported speech**, as the sentences above can be easily headed by an introductory sentence in the past:
  *My mum **said that** I could take only two candies from the tray.*
  *The teacher **told him that** he couldn't use his fingers to count.*
- in the case of permission, request, ask for help *could* is politer than *can* or *would* (as the relationship is more remote, cf. 75:74); the sentences below express a growing degree of politeness:
  Could I take your pen?
  Could I take your pen, please?
  Could you (possibly) give me your pen, please?
  I don't suppose you could give me your pen, could you?

Could I (possibly) have your pen, please?

- in these cases, the answer (either positive or negative) uses *can* or *may* (16:258):
  Yes, you may. No, you may not.
  Yes, you can. No, you can't.

7.3.5.4. Could – other speech acts

- doubt, uncertainty with various overtones (such as suspicion) or options (such as thinking aloud, internal monologue or demonstrating it to someone):
  John could have arrived in Venice by now.
  Jane couldn't marry John because he was nowhere to be found.
  Could she have eaten all the candies in five minutes?
- utmost (bombastic) desire, impulse, ardent wish (8:188, 15:206):
  I could die for you.
  I could kill for a cigarette.
  John is so happy that he could promise the moon and the stars to Jane.
  (positive feeling)
- a ramification of this sense is connected to hypothetical (analytical subjunctive) constructions (11:409):
  ***If only** you **could** understand my situation!*
  ***Suppose** we **could** obtain a lot of money easily, what would you buy?*
  *I **wish** you **could** have met the Does last night!*
- suggestion (26:66):
  I could do you a favour.
- various (typically negative) feelings, possibly leading to extreme behaviour:
  a) impatience (more express than *can*):
  How could he shoot like that?
  How could you do that to me?
  How (on earth) could John have sorted this out?
  b) irritation, reproach or criticism (for non-performance, 33:136):
  You could have helped me.
  Couldn't John have told us that he was going to get married?
  Why couldn't the colonel send more support?
  c) mild reproach, scolding, suggestion, advice:
  John could be a bit more attentive to details.
  You could stop presenting more examples.
  d) The negative form is more explicit:
  Couldn't you stop treating her like a queen?

At this stage a certain 'urban legend' should be demystified, namely the issue of addressing to someone formally or informally ('thouing'). Although English is often regarded as a language which makes no difference between formal and informal way of addressing people, modal verbs may reflect that (especially combined with first names or polite titles: *Mr, Ms, Sir, Madam*, etc.).

For instance, *can* is used for friends, being less polite than *could*, which should be used with strangers or politer ways of addressing to people. However, *could* is not necessarily more distant than *can*, as we are rather faced with the steps of a 'ladder': *can, could, may, migh*t, which may be completed with further clues, such as the choice of first name or family name or words expressing politeness (*please, possibly*, etc.).

7.3.6. Be able to

Modal alternatives (modal paraphrases, cf. 15:37; modal alternative constructions; marginal modal structures or semi-modals) are needed to refer to more explicit past, present or future events (modal verbs have only one form), and they may offer interesting shades of meaning compared to the central modal meanings.

Be able to is a construction expressing ability, possibility and necessity, being "much more common in writing than in speech" (30:103), gaining a more formal status (30:90). It is the obvious alternative of *can* and *could*. With its help past and present reference is much easier to follow, although the future form is rather frequent (8:189):

Jane was able to handle the situation alone.
I'm sure John will be able to carry out the mission successfully.
The colonel was sure that John would be able to carry out the mission successfully.

However, it should be noted that no modal alternative can fully replace modal verb meanings. In this case, *can* and *could* typically refer to general ability or possibility (happening many times), while *be able to* is used to express:

1. more formal style than *can* or *could*, which are typical for general present and past reference in speech; thus the use of *be able to* is less common, unless referring to a specific context;

2. single, specific, particular activities (2:81) involving difficulty (11:411) or opposition (15:208), thus becoming more stressed (8:188), especially that it can have degrees of comparison:
   Jane could read since she was five.
   I'm sure that Jane is able to understand this cryptic message.
   John could escape from tough situations many times.
   John was able to do it again.
   Jane is a person abler to handle the situation.
   John is the person ablest to negotiate with the rebels.
   There are two options to construct the negative form (8:189):
   The colonel is not able to handle the situation.
   The colonel is unable to cope with stress.

Palmer (30:90, 99) argues that *be able to* is 'can and does', while *can* is 'can and will do', which entails that *can* is "timeless" (30:98) or atemporal:

John is able to handle the (this specific) situation.
John can return home next weekend (or any time later).
Anything you say can and will be used against you in a court of law.[7]

The fact that *be able to* is a marginal modal construction is reflected from the fact that it may be combined with central modal verbs:[8]

John must be able to negotiate successfully.
The Does should be able to stand against a whole army.
Jane will be able to return home soon.
John might be able to do the splits.

[7] Cf. the Miranda warning and non-violation of the Fifth Amendment to US Constitution.
[8] 8:189, 30:98.

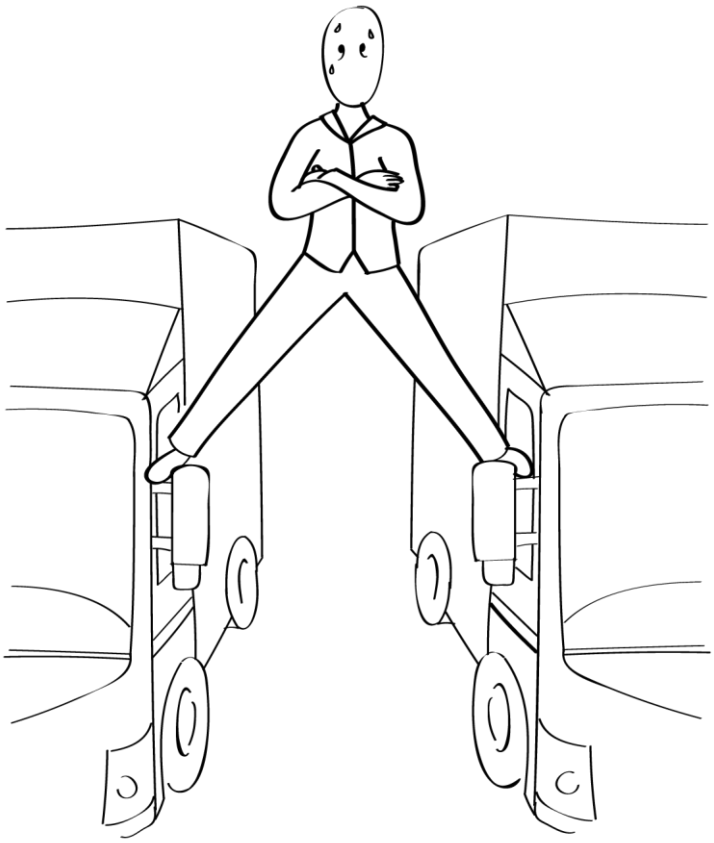


Illustration 45. John might be able...

Further alternative constructions conveying difficulty[9] may express:

- success:
  John managed to do it again. (manage + I.)
  Jane knows how to deal with thugs.
  Jane has the ability to be very persuasive.
  John is capable of performing miracles.
  John succeeded in doing it again. (succeed + I.-ing)
- failure:
  John failed to do it again. (fail + I.)
  John didn't manage to penetrate behind the enemy lines.

7.3.7. May

May and *might* – contrary to *can* and *could* – are primarily used to express subjective, epistemic **possibility** (75:126), yet it is knowledge-based supposition, with certain evidence for assumptions (77:294), evoking probability.

We know that *can* and *could* refer to a perceived existence of a possibility, while *may* and *might* is used to express the speaker's volitional involvement "in the creation of a possibility" (75:113). Thus *may* is used to express:

[9] 2:157, 15:208.

7.3.7.1. May – possibility

This is epistemic or real possibility, associated with knowledge-based supposition, cf. 77:295):

- this type of possibility may be connected to (hidden) logical deduction, similarly to *could*, although doubt, reasoning should be accounted for; thus *may* reflects the "speaker's assessment of possibility", so there are chances to fail (75:114):
  You may be right. (I don't know it better.)
  He hasn't visited us for a month. He may be very busy.
  (Otherwise he visits us every weekend.)
  The TV is on, as John may be waiting for the news.
  Jane looks tired. She may have been thinking about taking a longer break.
- it is suggested (77:295) that *can* expresses a more remote, theoretical possibility than *may*.
- it is also tempting to refer to *may* as expressing 50% possibility (and *might* 30% chance, cf. 41:338–344), but – similarly to *can* and *could* –, the range is much more extended (8:190):
  Weather conditions may look normal.
  During a safari people may spot a white rhinoceros.
  However, remote (weaker) possibility is expressed by might:
  You might (not) meet the Does, after all.
- general possibility (occasional, tentative) may refer to formal contexts (procedures, instructions, effects), when *may* is favoured over *can* (35:40):
  Overdose may lead to undesired effects. (vague enough to sound threatening…)
- possibility may be stemming from lack of obstacle (22:325):
  One day we may bump into each other.
- alternative constructions referring to this meaning may be formed with verbs such as *fancy, imagine, suppose, guess, think*.
- *may* combined with *I hope* expresses a more official tone (compared to *will, would*):
  I hope Mr. Doe may soon return to the battlefield.
- when *may* is preceded by specific verbs (*hope, wish, fear*),[10] it is a modal-auxiliary verb:
  I fear that one day you may meet your destiny.
- the negative form (*may not*) can mean that "it is possible that something does not happen" (65:106):
  John may not return home without a scratch...
- all these cases may be viewed as associated with 'general truths' (37:645).

Past reference is expressed by ***may* + *have* + III.**:

She may have told me the truth. (We cannot exclude this possibility.)

- possibility in the form of logical deduction also refers to the past:
  John's chopper may have crashed. (But we are not sure.)
- this use is also met in passive constructions (8:191):
  Jane's forearm may have been hurt by a branch.
- it is important to note the difference in meaning compared to *might* (7:134):
  John's chopper might have crashed in the terrible weather.
  (But fortunately it didn't.)

[10] 22:326, 11:307.

John's chopper might have crashed. He should have reported an hour ago.
(Although I truly doubt it; yet, for the time being, I have no better clue.)

- it is important to note the difference in meaning compared to *can* (16:258):
Jane can become a four-star general. (in theory this is possible)
Jane may become a four-star general. (possibility 'under way' & speculation)

7.3.7.2. May – permission (deontic)

- asking for and granting mostly official and authoritative permission (formal style), being politer than *could*:
May I leave the room? Yes, you may.
Visitors may enter the building at regular intervals.
- however, interrogation with *may* can be considered "courtesy", as the addressee cannot withhold it (30:78), which has been described as violating 'sincerity' (88:231):
May I show you your new office?
- sometimes collaboration is expected even if the form is an overly polite request:[11]
May I have my say about the incident, please?
(referring to both permission and possibility)
- denying permission is possible with *mustn't* (17:154) or *can't*:
You can't leave the room.
You mustn't leave the room.
- granting permission may be extended to mild suggestion:
You may start working now.
I think you may help me a little now.
- as may is used for very polite expressions, it may turn humorous, ironic or sarcastic:
May I ask you to leave earlier today? (foreman to workers)
- denying permission is obviously possible with the negative form (11:421), which may refer to lack of permission or polite interdiction (22:324) reaching prohibition:
  a) signs and legal notices often deny permission impersonally:
  You may not leave the premises with library books.
  Visitors may not smoke on the premises.
  (No smoking is allowed on the premises. => No smoking.)
  b) a more categorical version is formulated with *must not*, reflecting a categorical interdiction stemming from external necessity (22:324).
  You must not disregard what he says.
  c) prohibition in a highly formal style (rules, regulations, 30:103):
  Students may not be late.
  Passengers may not talk to the driver.
  d) although strong enough to express prohibition, *may not* is weaker (15:225) than prohibition with *must not* (*mustn't* ~ categorical prohibition).
- possibility in interrogative is not typical with *may*; alternative constructions are (15:221):
Do you think Jane will return home safe and sound?
Is it likely for John to pop the question this weekend?
- permission may be expressed by modal paraphrases such as *be allowed to* or *be permitted to*:

[11] 30:78, 77:296.

You won't be allowed to bring in popcorn.
John is not permitted to reveal anything about any mission.

- a very important distinction between possibility / probability and permission is highlighted by stress (22:325):
  The prisoner 'may speak. (probability)
  The prisoner may 'speak. (permission granted)

7.3.7.3. May – concession

Concession[12] is easily associated with *may*, expressing a special form of permission:

John may be sleeping, but the knife is in his hand.
Jane may well recover after the combat.
However fit she may seem, she is a frail person.
However much I may enjoy the sunshine, I'm afraid of skin cancer.
However difficult it may be / prove, I will still try to calm down the spirits.
Whatever you may say, I still trust the Does.

- concession may turn to indifference, dissent, or objection with the help of stock phrases containing *may*:
  Try as you may, you still won't be able to jump over this fence.
  We may (just) as well stop here and have a break.
- concessive idiomatic structures associated with resignation also contain *may*:
  Come what may.
  Be that as it may.

7.3.7.4. May – ability

- *may* in passive constructions can be associated with ability (15:219):
  Good reasons may be easily found to return to the base camp urgently.

7.3.7.5. May – other speech acts

- offer:
  May I walk you around the building?
- offer may take the form of a very polite ask for attention or personal remark (8:193), criticism or compliment (11:421), sometimes turning too bombastic, funny, ironical lead-in, especially when felt over-polite:
  If I may, I can explain to you the whole situation.
  If I may say so Mrs. Doe, you look charming today.
  I would like to give you a test paper, if I may.
- curiosity (22:325):
  What may be the end of all this? (~ I wonder…)
- Subjunctive Mood (4.2.) makes use of *may* to express hopes and wishes in elevated style (4:242, 11:422) or even formal curses (37:645), in which case *may* arguably gains an auxiliary function:
  May all your dreams come true.
  May Jane live happily with John!
  May the best win! (stock phrase)
  May you be happy!
- as the examples show, this case is also connected to **inversion**, as *may* precedes the subject. Thus it may be considered as the substitute for *I wish*, which is why

[12] 10:49, 11:307, 30:53.

Fillmore attributes to *may* a **magical** function (88:224); forty years later this function is referred to as **formulaic** *may* (77:296), but it is still considered the third important function of *may* (after epistemic possibility and deontic possibility / permission.

- *may* changes to *might* in sequence of tenses and reported speech:
  You may stay overnight.
  She said that I might stay overnight.

7.3.7.6. May – substitutes

- *let* and *permit* are verb substitutes for *may* (4:237):
  You may leave now.
  He was let to go. (passive)
  You are permitted to leave.
- certain adverbs:
  Perhaps he knows the truth.
  Maybe John is hidden under the carpet.
  It is not likely that Shrek will emigrate to Neverland.
  The thugs are possibly preparing an ambush for the Does now.

A final quote with *may* is provided by William Shakespeare:

> *Lord, we know what we are, but know not what we may be.*
> (*Hamlet*, Act 4, Scene 5)

7.3.8. Might

Might is the **remote** pair of *may*; this remoteness refers to **time** (expressing the 'past' of *may*) or **society** (politer or over-polite version), but there is a **psychological** remoteness as well (conditional, hypothetical, tentative); as such, it is less typical for formal, official style. Its relevant uses are:

7.3.8.1. Might – possibility

- less likely possibility (15:223) than *may*; in fact, a highly improbable possibility with polite lining:
  You might be lucky this time. (But I doubt that after the first eight attempts.)
  Jane might be sitting in the shadow of that tree.
  John might have been booby-trapping the area since last night.
  The Does might not make it in time, I'm afraid.
- the past version is *might* + *have* + III. verb form:
  Jane might not have known why the colonel relocated her.
- this construction may also express unfulfilled possibility (cf. conditional sentences):
  You might have met the Does if you had been in Fort Knox yesterday. (~ could)
- it is important to compare it with *may* (7:134):
  John's chopper might have crashed in the terrible weather.
  (But fortunately it didn't.)
  John's chopper might have crashed. He should have reported an hour ago.
  (Although I truly doubt it; yet, for the time being, I have no better clue.)
  John's chopper may have crashed. (But we are not sure.)
- *might* is also used in conditional sentences, referring to the conditionality of the proposition (30:183):
  If you asked her about the mission, she might accept it. (present possibility)

If you had asked her about the mission in time, she might have accepted it.
(past unfulfilled possibility)

- however, it may lack conditionality, expressing only tentative aspect (30:183):
  John might have sensed the danger coming when he hid in the hollow of the trunk.
- *might well* refers to a certain tentative possibility (8:195), or less certainty than *may* (30:58):
  The Does might well cause a riot.
  The Does might well have caused a riot if they had killed the leader.
- 'sporadic' possibility (leading to concession 15:225):
  John might be grumpy from time to time, but you can still trust him.

7.3.8.2. Might – permission

- asking for permission (requests) with highly improbable positive answer (expecting refusal):
  Might I have a day off, please?
- however, a request with *might* may result in a humorous, ironic or sarcastic effect:[13]
  Might I see your homework? (teacher to pupil)
- most modest requests are made with *might* combined with *if*:
  If I might see Jane again, I would definitely pop the question.
  (have the chance to)
  If I might, I would gladly accompany her to the ball.
- more persuasive request than *could* (referred to as "insistence", "dissatisfaction" in 4:241, cf. reproach):
  You might give me a hand, I'm so tired.
- concession or indifference (similarly to *may*), when *might* is part of a stock phrase:
  Try as he might, Jane won't ever marry Jake.
  Try as he might, Jake will still remain the runner-up.
- *might* preceded by certain verbs (*hope, wish, fear*) is characterised by a modal and auxiliary function as well (22:326):
  I hope that the Does might return home unharmed.

The past construction (*might* + *have* + III. verb form) expresses wishes about unfulfilled actions (22:325):

You might have given me a hand; now all the ammo is on the floor!

7.3.8.3. Might – other speech acts

- mild, casual command (15:228) or friendly suggestion, especially combined with *like* or *want* (37:647):
  We might focus on the next modal verb from now on, don't you think?
  You might like to check the correct answers, printed on the other side of the paper.
- reproach[14] or scolding, which is more explicit than *could* (cf. persuasive requests):
  You might listen to me, you know, for a change.
  You 'might have 'warned me that talking to the guerrilla leader means jail![15]

[13] This is possible when 'sincerity' is violated regarding the social status of the speakers, as distancing to such extent is not realistic (cf. 88:230).
[14] 8:195, 15:228.
[15] It is stated that *might* is used "for failure to perform an action in the past" (15:228), "annoyance at someone's failure to do something" (26:73), with a strong stress on the words preceded by an apostrophe, see the example.

- polite (tentative) suggestions (30:186):
  You might want to visit the British Museum.
  I think swimming pigs in the Bahamas might offer some joy…

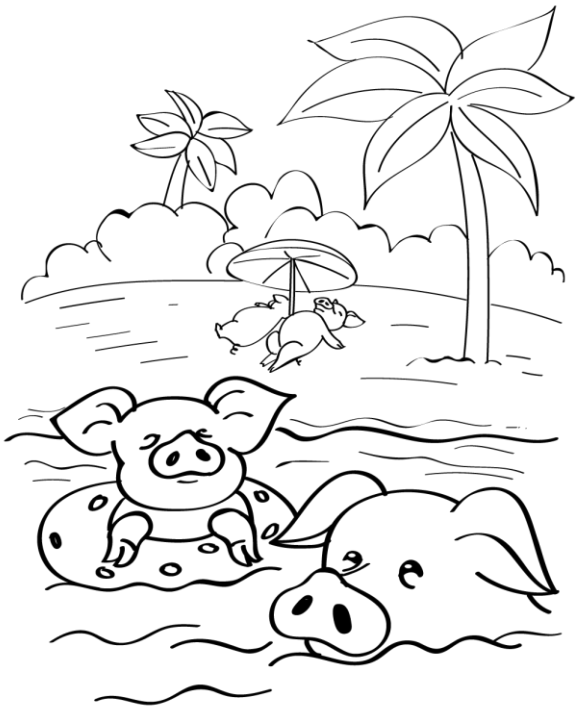


Illustration 46. Swimming pigs... might offer

- various feelings (typically negative) are associated with *might*:
  a) irritation due to some typical behaviour or action resulting in 'trouble' (8:196):
  John might have guessed what was so urgent to the colonel at dawn.
  I might have known what was to happen.
  b) dissent, objection (4:242), intention, recommendation (16:253) or sheer indifference:
  We might as well stop firing as no trees are left.
  I might as well read the news aloud.
  The Does might (just) as well have been sent to Cambodia.
  c) unpleasant alternatives (16:253):
  You might (just) as well call your lawyer.
  d) ironical remark that "an action was typical of someone else" (26:73):
  You might have known that he would start shooting at the first faint noise in the jungle.
- highly improbable wishes (8:179) in hypothetical constructions:
  John wishes Jane might return from the mission unharmed.

- *might* can replace *may* or *could* in reported speech; alternative constructions (*be allowed to, be permitted to*) are not used to replace *may* in reported speech (15:227):[16]
  I think I may solve the case alone.
  I think I could solve the case alone.
  I thought I might solve the case alone, but the colonel refused the suggestion.
- overall, *might* and *could* express greater uncertainty than *may* and *can.*

A highly important remark regarding modal verbs is well-exemplified with *might*. However strong is the belief that *could, might, should* and *would* are the 'past versions' of *can, may, shall* and *will*, this is not always the case. In this respect the context should always help (17:160):

1. in case *might* is translated, it is a modal verb:
   She might feel offended.

2. in case might is not translated, it is an auxiliary verb and definitely not the past form of *may*:
   John stopped talking so that she might not feel offended.
- in this case it helps forming the analytical subjunctive.

7.3.9. Be allowed / permitted to

Similarly to *be able to*, these structures are also used to make past, present and future reference clearer. As for the meaning, they can substitute modal verbs expressing ask for or granting permission (*may, might, can, could*) in a more authoritative way (16:254):

Are you allowed to chew gum during the class?
The Does were (not) allowed to cause collateral damage.
Is Jane permitted to quit the mission?
Jane won't be permitted to quit under any circumstances.

As the examples show, they are restricted to single, specific cases, unlike their modal equivalents; they are preferred in negative structures (8:196):

Passengers are not allowed to be rude.
It is not permitted to leave anyone behind.

However, they are not used to replace *may* in reported speech, in which case *might* is used (15:227).

7.3.10. Must

Modal meanings of *must* are connected to obligation and necessity, typically associated with its affirmative form.

However, it may be considered the most interesting verb, having two options for constructing the negative, leading to two separate meanings (*mustn't* and *don't have to / needn't*).

By and large (exceptions mentioned separately), *must* may be followed by I. verb form (referring to present, past and future);[17] a clearly past reference derives from *must + have*

[16] If *might* is used direct speech, it is also preserved in reported speech.
[17] As *must* has a single form, its context offers a guide whether it refers to past, present or future; thus a clear past or future reference (11:425) is needed: *when I was a child* (past), *next week* (future), etc.; however, its use in past context is extremely rare (17:153).

+ III. verb form or *had to*, while future reference by *will have to*. Yet, it is more often connected to future due to its uses (30:121). *Must* is typically associated with the following meanings:

7.3.10.1. Must – obligation

Obligation expresses compulsion, which is deontic necessity (cf. 77:296–298), detailed in the following:

- internal obligation, often expressing personal feelings (34:62); if it is "imposed by the speaker", it means that the speaker considers it important, justified, etc.:[18]
  I must stop daydreaming.
  (~ will have to, ~ be obliged to, ~ be forced to)
  After a while I realised I must / had to stop daydreaming.
- however, in the majority of cases internal or external obligation is not strictly separated; when important, external obligation is expressed by *have to* (cf. 7.3.11.); in cases where this is not clear, both modal verbs are acceptable:
  Jane must help John.
  Jane has to help John.
- the interrogative and negative forms are:
  Must we listen to all this? No, you needn't.
  (*needn't* for lack of necessity, where *needn't* negates the modality, 30:38)
  John mustn't negotiate with the rebels.
- the example expresses 'necessity for something not to be done';[19] the modal refers to the entire proposition (30:38), while *don't have to* is associated with 'not necessary';
- obligation may derive from impersonal orders (4:254), obeying the law, rules and regulations (8:214), interdiction, prohibition (11:426), duties or notices posted in public places (9:144), imposed by external authorities (15:231):
  Passengers must keep all their luggage with them at all times.
  You must comply with the regulations.
  Visitors must not feed the animals.
  Rules must be obeyed. (passive voice)
- commands, orders may be urgent (22:328):
  The Does must fly to Neverland at once.
  They mustn't delay.
- impersonal orders are expressed in passive voice or in written form;
- general necessity may be neutral (30:113):
  Everybody must work to bring home the bacon.
- past and future reference is possible with *had to* and *will have to*:
  When I was four, I had to go to the kindergarten.
  If you want to stay alive, you will have to drink water regularly.
- present necessity may lead to either near-future fulfilment, or never to be done; as such, *must* is not an automatic indicator of will (22:327):
  She must file a report about the incident. ≠ She will file a report about the incident.
- less strict necessity or obligation is possible with *need* (replacing both *must* and *have to*):
  You must think about that.
  You need to think about that.

[18] 7:127, 11:425.
[19] 30:34, 32:65, 75:106.

They have to unload the truck within an hour.
They need to unload the truck within an hour.

- the absence of obligation or necessity is expressed with *needn't* (15:232) or *don't / didn't / won't have to, have got to, am not to, was not to* (especially for past and future reference):
  You must think about that.
  You don't have to think about that.
  I'm sure you didn't have to think about that mission too much.
  She's got to understand why the mission is dangerous. (rarely used, cf. 22:329)
  John is not to take hostages. (frequently used, cf. 22:329)
  I'm sure that you will have to think about that mission.
  (reluctance, unpleasant necessity indicated, 15:235).

7.3.10.2. Must – necessity

Necessity may be epistemic or dynamic ("knowledge-based" conclusion or "neutral", referring to property, 77:296–298), and it has different shades:[20]

- concrete:
  I must make sure that everything is settled.
- logical, rational possibility:
  It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife. (Jane Austen: *Pride and Prejudice*)
- logical necessity is typically connected to scientific, technical descriptions:
  In order to obtain the best results, we must use an algorithm.
- inevitable (nature of things, 30:130):
  We must face our destiny. Our destiny is the path we must follow. (Erin Hunter, *Twilight*)
- conclusions are based on circumstances;
- it is similar to an obligation:
  You must follow the orders at all costs.
- characteristic, leading to logical deduction:
  Bill Gates must be rich enough to support education worldwide.
- the common element in all of them is "the speaker's confidence" in their truth value (30:53).

Alternative constructions expressing *must* are the following:[21]

- positive form: be compelled to, be forced to, be obliged to:
  John was forced to retreat due to the heavy artillery fire.
- negative form: am / are / is not to, be not allowed to, be not permitted to.
  Jane is not allowed to share details of the mission with anyone.

7.3.10.3. Must – logical deduction & possibility

In this case *must* is used for subjective judgement in the present circumstances, contrary to *have to*, which is objective, legal necessity (cf. 75:105):

- logical deductions or plausible events felt to be very sure by the speaker (certainty):
  The Does must be very tired after having fought in the jungle for 16 hours.
  Look at the shadow! It must be twelve o'clock, isn't it?

[20] 22:327, 30:32.
[21] 17:154, 22:329.

The Does must have been very tired after a 16 hours' fight in the jungle.
What goes up must come down. (proverb)
This must be the entrance, as there's no other door.
(cf. *will* for deduction, 7.3.15.)
That must have been the entrance, as we couldn't find any other door.
You must have heard the news, everybody's talking about the Does.

- the negative synonym for *must* is *can't*[22] and both of them are used when there is "no absolute proof, but good reasons to be certain to be true" (51:136), thus they are subjective assumptions:
  Jane can't be a nice person. (The speaker is sure that she isn't.)
- the certainty may be emphasised by an introductory *surely*, resulting in exclamation (26:73):
  Surely you must have spent all the money!
  Surely you can't have seen a ghost!
- logical deductions may be less conclusive, being closer to assumption, presupposition, possibility, especially in "estimating statements" (16:261):
  Jane must be a nice person; I have heard so much about her.
  Com'on, you must know the answer, you know everything!
  John must be older than Jane. (an educated guess)
- when the speaker feels lack of logic or reason, irritation may take the form of (indirect, rhetorical) question with *must* (8:217):
  Why must you always be late for work?
  I don't understand why you must always be late for work.

Although it is considered to be the "strongest" epistemic modal verb (30:32), we have to add that this is only so in "the speaker's perception at the moment of speaking" (75:108); thus it may be considered the strongest in a subjective interpretation, while *have to* is used to express objective necessity with little modal overtone.

7.3.10.4. Must – negation

The standard 'perfect' antonym of words is their form completed with not (e.g. *orange* vs. *not orange*, *like* vs. *not like*). However, *must* is an exception to this rule, having both a grammatical negation (*mustn't*) and two meaning-based negatives (*don't have to, needn't*).

- grammatical negation is constructed by *must + not* (or *mustn't*), used for strong prohibition (16:274) or negative obligation (33:142):
  You must listen to me. (It is imperative to focus on me.)
  You mustn't listen to politicians. (It is strictly forbidden to listen / believe to them.)
- alternatives for strong prohibition are:
  *You **shall not** leave the room without my permission.* (rules)
  *He **can't** visit her any time he wants.* (personal remarks)
- meaning-based negation of *must* is expressed by *don't / didn't / won't have to* and *needn't*, used for the absence of obligation or necessity (15:232) in past, present or future:
  Snipers must stay alert all the time.
  (It is imperative to stay alert all the time.)
  John doesn't have to sharpen his knife any more.
  (It is not necessary, as it is as sharp as a razor.)
- an alternative for 'unnecessary' is *needn't*:

[22] 15:232, 31:92.

John needn't sharpen his knife any more.

- the past reference for the meaning-based negative *must* is colourful:
  Snipers must have stayed alert all night. (But they didn't.)
  Snipers had to stay alert all night. (So they did.)
  John needn't have sharpened his knife for two hours. (But he did.)
  John didn't have to sharpen his knife. (So he didn't.)
  John shouldn't have sharpened his knife for two hours.
  (But he did, so the blade of the knife is much thinner.)

7.3.10.5. Must – other speech acts

- reproach, hidden admonition, stronger than *should*; past unfulfilled actions resulting in something negative (failure, remorse, etc.):
  You must have studied more to work for our company.
  (Because we only employ studious people.)
  I must have stopped daydreaming.
  (That's why I couldn't finish the job in time.)
  Jane must have helped John.
  (Because she failed to, John is hospitalised.)
  You must have joined me to celebrate my birthday.
  (The others had a great time!)
- "personal recommendation" (72:142–144), emphatic advice, strong suggestion, persuasion, "casual" invitation (15:230) or request, which hardly leave room for contradiction, being "almost an imperative" (30:73):
  You must join me to celebrate my birthday.
  If it's classical music, you must listen to Mozart, Beethoven and Liszt.
  If it's opera, then you must spend some time with Rossini and Verdi.
- in effect, this is similar to emphatic imperatives starting with *do*:
  Do join me to celebrate my birthday.
- this is possible because the speaker has certain authority to lay an obligation; yet it is polite to insist on offering something to the benefit of the addressee, and it is equally polite to refuse it; however, it is equally true that not all emphatic invitations or polite offers are to be taken seriously (30:194).
- irritation (for habits, repeated events); the question form referring to the speaker is notable (30:114):
  Whenever I start eating, you must show up…
  Why must I accept that I can't join you at the beach?
- nevertheless, proper gesture or intonation may turn it into ironical or humorous remarks.
- irritation may be due to rather indiscreet questions, to which a specific stock phrase (8:217) is the answer:
  If you must know, the Does are in Neverland.
- irritation may be softened and turned into involuntary (forced) acceptance or resignation (8:217, must combined with *if*):
  If you must accept the challenge, ask for help.
  If I must keep quiet, then why do you keep shouting?
- in case the obligation is imposed on the speaker (*I* or *we*), the sense is weakened (30:73–74):
  I must say that I truly admire what the Does have accomplished so far.

- other verbs associated with must in this sense are: *admit, ask, be honest, concede, confess, mention, realise, reiterate, remember, understand*; the speaker effectively admits the action.
- interrogative forms starting with *must* may express a whole range of meanings, such as:

a) nuisance, annoyance, irritation:
Must you always ask me for money? (Can't you find another 'victim'?)
Must you always remind me of my mistakes? (It bothers me too much!)
b) standard question, not sure whether the answer is going to be *yes* or *no*:
Must I answer the questions of the press?
c) however, when the person is hoping for a negative answer, *need* is used (cf. 7.3.12.):
Need I do the job alone?

Must is usually replaced by the proper form of *have to* (*had to*) in sequence of tenses and reported speech when past reference is needed; however, this is not compulsory, as it may remain *must* after reporting verbs for prohibition or logical deduction (15:236), but it can report present tense "in any of its uses" (30:121):

John knew he must not contradict the colonel during the briefing.
She confessed that she must have been tired enough not to see the danger.
Jane said that John must enter the bushes first.

Have to may be a viable replacement for *must* referring to the future (*will have to*) or past (*had to*):

Whether you like it or not, you will have to face your fears. (reluctance)
When he was in the army, he had to follow orders but he didn't have to report regularly.

The past form of must is worth discussing, as it is either preserved or *had to* is used:

Jane confessed that she felt she must open fire first.
Jane confessed that she must have been taken the wrong decision.
Jane knew that she had to open fire first.

- the intrinsic meaning of *must* refers to decisions felt necessary at the moment of speaking, so the concept of remoteness is not associated with it (75:114), be it legal, moral, practical or logical obligation:
Soldiers mustn't contradict their superiors. (deontic obligation – authority)
You mustn't think like that.
You mustn't trust strangers.
John must have been relieved when the ceasefire was announced.

7.3.10.6. Must – quotes and phrases

We must, indeed, all hang together or, most assuredly, we shall all hang separately. (Benjamin Franklin)
We are all born ignorant, but one must work hard to remain stupid. (Benjamin Franklin)
You must be the change you wish to see in the world. (Mahatma Gandhi)
Knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do. (Johann Wolfgang von Goethe)
You must do the things you think you cannot do. (Eleanor Roosevelt)
You must stay drunk on writing so reality cannot destroy you. (Ray Bradbury)

Do the difficult things while they are easy and do the great things while they are small. A journey of a thousand miles must begin with a single step. (Lao Tzu)
You must be joking. (idiomatic expression, BE, 30:56)
You gotta be kidding. (AE)

7.3.10.7. Must – non-modal use

When *must* is used void of its modal value, it refers to highly desired things:
The washing machine is a must-have in each house.

7.3.11. Have (got) to

Have to is not a formal modal verb (e.g. 75:105), as it has inflected forms (77:305), and it may be preceded by a central modal verb. Further observations are:

- the interrogation and negation uses *do* or *did* as auxiliary verbs;
- *have got to* is considered to be a 'modal idiom' (similarly to *had better* or *would rather*), and a possible variant to *have to* (7:301) with similar meanings, such as obligation, logical necessity based on external reasons (75:144), without the habitual meaning (36:145);
- yet, semantically viewed, it is considered a semi-modal verb (necessity and possibility, 30:24), being felt a less intense synonym of *must* (10:48), especially in past and future contexts

Have to is closest in meaning to *must*, hence its uses are similar, detailed in the following sections.

7.3.11.1. Have to – obligation

Obligation expresses compulsion, which is dynamic necessity; specific uses are exemplified the following:

- external (habitual or formal) obligation,[23] facts instead of personal feelings (34:62), "lacking the implication that the speaker is an authority" (36:226), as it is used in objective, legal cases (75:105):
  Undercover agents have to disguise themselves, but soldiers have to wear a uniform while in service.
- external obligation is typically exerted by various authorities; however, there are many cases when the difference between external or internal obligation is not possible to see or it is not relevant. In these cases, both *have to* and *must* are possible:
  Each week I have to face the fact that he is my boss. (routine-like)
  John has to operate in silence.
- past reference is expressed with *had to*:
  John had to operate in silence as per instructions.
- while *should* and *ought to* followed by the perfect infinitive (*have* + III.) basically express failure of an event, *had to* "implies that the event did, in fact, take place" (30:124).
- logically, the negative form expresses lack of necessity or obligation (26:65, 32:65):
  The Does don't have to ask for air support.
- past reference (lack of necessity) is expressed with *didn't have to* or *didn't need to*:

[23] 15:234, 14:62, 77:305.

The Does didn't have to ask for air support last night.
The colonel didn't need to be present at the HQ in the afternoons.

7.3.11.2. Have to – (logical) necessity

The epistemic necessity (77:305) associated with *have to* is often neutral or 'circumstantial' or external (30:113).

- specific necessity is connected to present:
  I have to stop for a rest, I've been working since morning.
  Jane has to reconsider the situation.
- reluctance or unpleasant necessity is often indicated by the future form (15:235); possible accompanying adverbs are *probably* or *perhaps*:
  The Does will (possibly) have to retire sooner than expected.
- *have to* may become more emphatic than *must* (11:427):
  You must tackle the problem tactfully.
  You will have to tackle the problem tactfully. (Don't forget about that!)
- less strict necessity or obligation is possible with *need*:
  You have to think about that.
  You need to think about that.
- *have got to* is a colloquial variant of *have to*,[24] which is typically used for single actions necessary to carry out:[25]
  I have got to be there in time.
  I've got to meet my fiancée.
  Sorry, I've gotta go. (AE)
  Have you got to be at home at 8?

The fact that *have to* is not a central modal is evident from its interrogative and negative forms, relying on *do* and *did* as the auxiliary for present and past. In fact, this is already obvious when the third person singular uses *has to* instead of *have to*:

John has to obey the colonel's orders.
Does he have to obey nonsense orders as well?
John doesn't have to obey orders from the sergeant.
John didn't have to call for backup.

A further evidence for being a marginal modal is the possibility to be preceded by a central modal (8:218):

The rescue team shouldn't have had to land in the open field.
The team might have had to try a second wave of attack if they hadn't been out of ammo.

Similarly, past forms make use of *did*, while *will* is the future auxiliary; these forms refer to both *have to* and *must*:

John had to understand quickly that Jane is the boss at home.
Jane didn't have to explain the house rules too much.
John will have to file a report about the mission tomorrow.
Jane won't have to explain what not to include in the report.

These cases are highly important, as they prove the grammatical difference between central and marginal modal verbs. Although the meanings of marginal modal verbs may seem

[24] Used in either BE (12:128) or spoken English (30:114).
[25] 42:119, 33:139.

similar to central ones, they lack the richness of meanings, even if they refer more clearly to past, present and future.

In this case, the gain of *have to* lies in the fact that it offers the possibility to distinguish external obligation from internal one (although not always sensible), but it may also replace *must* in past, future (being less ambiguous in form) or reported speech:[26]

John must know how to evacuate the prisoners. (past or present)
John had to know how to evacuate the prisoners. (past)
John has to know how to evacuate the prisoners. (present)
Jane knew that she must take down the attacker. (unclear reported speech*)*
Jane knew that she had to take down the attacker. (reported speech*)*

Obviously, in the case of the last example the 'conversion' to direct speech is possible in two ways:

"I know that I have to take down the attacker."
"I know that I must take down the attacker."

The possibility of choice signals an important fact: either objective (*have to*) or subjective (*must*) necessity, in the majority of cases the speakers are little concerned about it; this way we can explain why an author "can distinguish no consistent patterns of semantic distinction" (75:156) between them, and the choice is felt arbitrary.

Formal differences are obvious, such as word order, which may become highly important in the case of *have to*:

We have to do nothing. (We were ordered to relax.)
We have nothing to do. (We can relax.)
Nobody has time to kill. (~ There is no time to waste.)
Everybody has to kill time somehow.

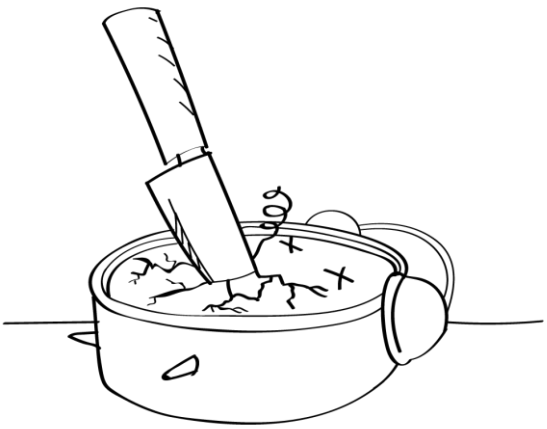


Illustration 47. Everybody has to...

[26] For similar reasons, other modal verbs also have alternative constructions, which usually contain the auxiliary be, which can easily express past, present and future reference (cf. 2.14.).

7.3.12. Need

Need has two functional uses: weak verb (1.5.4.3.) and – due to its weak possibilities – is a marginal or semi-modal verb,[27] which is less formal (30:128) than the weak version. Its core modal meaning stems from the fact that it is a "suppletive form of *must* in negative and interrogative environments" (19:248).

7.3.12.1. Need – obligation

Need may be a synonym for *must* or *have to*, thus it is associated with obligation, compulsion or necessity:

- (lack of) necessity, obligation, requirement or want (33:140), deriving from speaker's authority:
  We need to launch the attack at dawn.
- absence of obligation / necessity (39:46) with various forms, such as *needn't, not need to, not have to*: the negative form refers to the absence of obligation,[28] associated with an external authority as an alternative for *won't, don't need to, don't have to* (33:144);
  We needn't hurry, need we? There's plenty of time…
  (We don't have to hurry as there's plenty of time.)
  We don't need another hero (Tina Turner)
- the question tag also proves that *need* is a modal verb; in case it is a weak verb, the question tag changes:
  We need to understand the effects of global warming, don't we?
- this modal use almost exclusively occurs in negative (hence lack of necessity), thus it is similar to the negative form of *have to*; however, the affirmative *need* may be used in present, combined with negatives (*no, never*) and half-negatives (*little, hardly, scarcely*, etc.):
  I need hardly explain to you what happened in Neverland. (negative meaning)
- logically, the antonymous meaning is formed with *must*:
  We must hurry as there's little time left.
- alternative constructions are: *(not) necessary, (not) obliged*.
- the interrogative form entails "hope for a negative answer";[29] thus *need* may express a strong, hidden doubt regarding the action:
  Need I learn the entire list of irregular verbs?
- if we ask an 'open' question (both yes and no answer is possible), *must* is used:
  Must I learn the entire list of irregular verbs?
- doubt of obligation may be expressed with a highly polished alternative in the form of an over-polite rhetorical question (introduced by *I wonder*); the simpler version lacks the polite introductory verb, remaining the subjunctive form:
  I wonder if we need be present.
  I wonder if we need be happy all the time.
  If need be, the colonel will call in the SAS.
- a more context-embedded example for *need be* is to be found in the TV series *Suits*, season 2, episode 5 (00:28'00''):
  "Every parent has the right. The right to teach your child a lesson." "Yes."
  "When he defies you." "If need be."

[27] 75:128, 30:25.
[28] Cf. things not necessary to perform or permission not to be performed (33:141).
[29] 4:257, 15:233, 33:145.

Modal *need* in perfective constructions (*need* + *have* + III.) refers to unnecessary actions, which were nevertheless carried out in the past (15:239), or doubting the necessity in the past (22:335):

The colonel needn't have panicked. After all, the Does were there.
(But he panicked, which proved to be unnecessary.)

7.3.12.2. Need – weak verb

The weak *need* in past refers to actions not carried out, knowing that they were unnecessary; however, this lack of obligation might have been overlooked (in which case the sentence is completed):

Jane didn't need to worry about the mission. (absence of obligation, 12:133)
(So she probably didn't worry about it at all)
Jane needn't have worried about the mission.
(the use of modal *need* signals that she actually did.)
Jane didn't need to wake up before 4 a.m., but she couldn't sleep.
(So she woke up.)

Further details about the weak *need* are discussed in 1.5.4.3. and 3.8.4. (causative *need* in *needs doing*).

7.3.13. [aiw] to

For simplicity, this structure is commonly referred to as *be to* in theoretical descriptions, although it is a non-existent form in practice (30:3), where one of the five forms is used: *am to, are to, is to, was to*, or *were to*.

As this construction is not preceded by any other verb (30:164), this is already a formal reason to be included among modal verbs, and it is indeed labelled as a "modal expression" (11:392), "modal substitute" (8:221) or a formal modal verb.

As a modal verb, it bears a special deontic meaning associated with obligation or necessity (77:304) combined with future arrangements or plans (cf. section 2.14.1.), as its non-modal functions are temporal. Even if connected to future, it is widely used as a modal construction, its meaning being close to *must, have to*,[30] *ought to* and *should*:

7.3.13.1. [aiw] to – obligation

- it is "an extremely useful way of expressing indirect commands",[31] obligations or prohibitions imposed by external authorities,[32] necessities, orders (14:23), instructions,[33] recommendations, duties, admonitions, reprimands or general rules (cf. *must*), which may take place in advance or after the 'wrongful' event to reach the desired effect (e.g. in a parent – child relationship):
  The Does are to finish the mission as quietly as possible.
- when *you* is included, "it often implies that the speaker is passing on instructions issued by someone else" (33:116), that is, formal commands:
  Whether you like it or not, you are to leave at once. (~ have to)
  You are to wash your teeth regularly.

[30] While one of the sources mentions that used in instructions, notices and orders, it comes close to *must* and never to *have to* (76:37), other sources compare it to *have to* (75:144).
[31] 33:116, 8:222.
[32] 11:392, 39:44, 54:189, 76:37.
[33] 72:150, 15:266.

- while the negative form may express serious prohibition (40:183), in which case not is stressed (31:93); negative forms may refer to the modality or the entire proposition, but they "simply deny the future event" (30:166):
  You're not to wear shoes in here. (~ mustn't)
  You are not to be late this time. (~ mustn't)
- as this construction is considered a "rather impersonal way of giving instructions" it is mainly "used with the third person" (33:116):
  Children are to listen to their parents.
  No one is to leave the premises.
  Soldiers are to follow orders without question.
- an interesting parallel may be drawn between [aiw] *to* and *have to*; both of them are semi-modals referring to abstract, objective necessities connected to objective, future factuality (75:144) deriving from an external authority:
  The Does are to be in the office at 0800.
  The Does have to be in the office at 0800.
- it is a preferred expression of newspapers and formal contexts (37:664), such as "irrevocable" announcements of authorities, restricted to particular cases (cf. 75:143–144); the ellipted form tends to appear in journalistic style:
  Taxpayers are to face new burdens.
  Snipers to face a new challenge.
- when compared with *must*, the choice of [aiw] *to* suggests that "something has been arranged or organised for us" (54:189); although not normally used in spoken English, it might be found in spy stories (54:189);
- (official, legal) statements, notices, instructions, rules are often formulated with the passive infinitive combined with [aiw] *to*:
  There's nothing to be done about it. (~ can't)
  There was nothing to be seen.
  Jane was nowhere to be found. (~ couldn't)
  Labels are not to be removed. (~ mustn't)
  The law is to be obeyed. (~ must)
  (Pills are) to be taken before meals. (on medicine bottles)
- the ellipted passive voice is one of the strictest commands, prohibitions or instructions:
  To be opened at 0400.
  Not to be used in closed spaces.
- (future) events as the result of previous arrangement, plan, appointment or schedule[34] or "things destined to happen" (37:664):
  The Does are to land at dawn. (~ must, ~ should)
  Are we to study hard?
- unfulfilled or cancelled arrangements, obligations are formulated with:[35]
  a) ***was / were to*** + I., when the remote form expresses pure facts from a point of view in the past (75:143–145):
  John was to marry Jane in June, but they were in Neverland at that time.
  At that time John felt something was to go wrong with the plan.
  Jane had no idea what was to happen next.
  b) ***was / were to + have*** + III. expresses unfulfilled plans:
  The governor was to have given a speech, but he failed in doing so. (formal)

[34] 11:392, 15:266.
[35] 2:89, 11:392, 15:268.

John was to have killed all the thugs, but one escaped.

c) this past construction may offer an air of **destiny or fate** (which proved to be good or bad, or a chance never to return again):

The Does arrived home safe and sound, yet they were never to return to Neverland ever again.
We were never to meet again, ever.
After exiting the HQ that night, the Does were to have never met the colonel again.

d) spoken English also uses an **alternative**:

We were supposed to meet again, but didn't ever after.

7.3.13.2. [aiw] to – other speech acts

- ask for advice, preference (8:222), help, suggestion, instruction (even rhetorical, theatrical or humorous):
  What am I to do with you? (~ shall, should)
  What am I to do if John disappears? (~ should)
  Where am I to look for clues? (~ should, ought to)
  John needs to know where he is to land. (~ must, should)
  Where is John to be found? (~ could)
  Am I to open the gates? (~ should)
  If Jane is to eliminate the thugs, they'd better contact the undertaker. (~ has to, must)
- options, possibilities (11:392), reasonable actions (30:166), desired states of affairs (37:665):
  Coffee is to drink hot. (~ should)
  Further adjustments are to be expected.
- indignation or impatience:
  Am I to sit back and relax while Jane is trouble? (~ should, have to)
- in reported speech, both for present and past commands (8:222):
  "Stand up when the president enters." She says I am to stand up when the president enters.
  "Where shall we head for?" The soldiers want to know where they are to head for.
  "Don't listen to John." The colonel ordered that they were not to obey John's orders.
- idiomatic expressions (30:166):
  You are to be blamed for this!
  This house is to let.
- idiomatic phrase (11:393):
  *Shrek doesn't know it yet, but he is an ideal husband **to-be**.*
- hypothetical or tentative future may be expressed by *were to* or *was to* (less formal, 37:665):
  If you were to decide where to go, what would you choose?
  If it was to happen, I wouldn't be delighted...

7.3.14. [aiw] bound to + I.

This semi-modal construction may express near future (cf. 2.14.3.) with all its five equally valid forms: *am bound to, are bound to, is bound to, was bound to, were bound to*, and the type of future it expresses is commonly explained with terms leading to modal overtones:

- immediate future actions, although its shade of 'inevitability' is emphasised, such as necessity and must (36:237), "something is certain to happen in the future" (31:92) or "future prediction of certainty" (26:67):
  More thugs are bound to appear soon. (It is beyond any doubt.)
  However, their plan is bound to fail when they meet John.
  John is bound to be here on time as he's never late.
- obligation to be honoured in the near future (e.g. "compelled to", 36:237):
  The Does are bound to leave Neverland.
- as [aiw] *bound to* is associated with probability, certainty and likelihood, these terms refer to the way the speaker interprets the situation, so the expectation may not turn to realisation; thus the second example below implies a strong prediction, which in the majority of cases turns true, but there may still be cases 'contrary to expectations':
  The train is bound to pull in to the station soon. (but it may be delayed)
  Although accepted at the company, he was bound to be a failure.
- similar constructions in meaning reveal its connection with speech acts associated with modal verbs (34:128):
  The candidate is sure to pass the exam.
  The candidate is certain to pass the exam.
  The candidate is likely to pass the exam.
  The candidate is bound to pass the exam.

The expression – although associated with futurity (cf. 36:237) fits in a modal string as well, even being "more certain" (30:55) than *must*:

You must pay your debts.
You should pay your debts.
You ought to pay your debts.
You need to pay your debts.
You are obliged to pay your debts.
You are compelled to pay your debts.
You are bound to pay your debts.

7.3.15. Will

Four modal verbs are characterised by the "greatest potential confusion" (75:114), which is largely due to their complex meanings, often associated with future time reference: *will, would, shall* and *should*.

Due to their complexity, they are met connected to temporal, conditional, hypothetical and a wide range of modal meanings mixed with various speech acts, which are difficult to distinguish.

Human beings perceive past and present time as providing 'evidence', enough 'knowledge' to serve as the foundation for the future time, which will inevitably come, even if "nothing about the future is totally certain" (75:118).

Will is primarily a modal verb (cf. section 2.9.) with highly extended functions (77:282–286), summarised as "psychologically immediate" and "inevitably linked to the present state" (75:119) for the speaker.

It is convenient to consider it the auxiliary verb for future tenses (in the majority of grammar books, especially the ones written for non-native speakers), which derives from its core meaning of logical **inevitability** "given the present situation" (75:114); yet, the speaker may be wrong, perceiving the situation at the present moment (75:116), which "must inevitably arise or be true". Inevitability is primary temporal, thus we have to deal

with the temporal inevitability of *will* (75:115–117), which derives from its auxiliary function.

7.3.15.1. Will – future auxiliary

This function is a convenient – although partial – explanation when the auxiliary verb for tenses ⑨, ⑩, ⑪ and ⑫ is discussed. This type of futurity stems from prediction based on circumstantial knowledge or certainty, confidence,[36] proving that it may be difficult to separate auxiliary and modal functions (22:316):

⑨ *will* in Future Simple reflects:

- the speaker's judgement (75:117), who feels in control (cf. power discussed below):
  The Does will return from Neverland in 2029.
- quick, instant decisions (58:107–120) or reactions 'on the spot',[37] labelled as "intermediate volition" (15:245), as they express "the immediacy of the process to the speaker" (75:107), often "announcing a decision at the moment we make it (43:118):
  As the plane's landing, we'll fasten the seat-belts.
  I've heard some gunshots. I'll check the premises.
- quick decisions are needed in case of various offers or invitations[38] or refusals (cf. power to make offers or invitations):
  Will you join me for dinner?
  Will you take a seat over here?
  OK, if you give me a discount, I'll buy three of them.
- expressing preference[39] may be also instant, that is acceptance or refusal (associated with volition, discussed below):
  I will have a biscuit instead of wafers. (literary)
  I won't need anything else.
- quick reaction is needed when it is stated how much money is owed (41:616–618):
  That'll be $1, please.

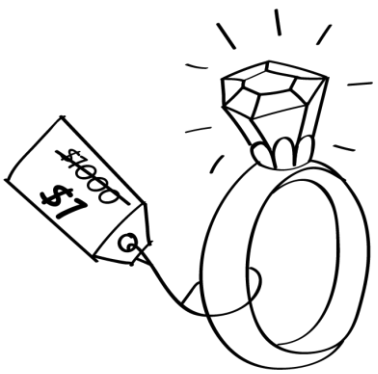


Illustration 48. That'll be...

[36] 77:282–286 or 44:152, 41:616–618.
[37] 15:249, 75:117.
[38] 15:245, 58:107–120.
[39] Cf. 23.4.313.

- quick reaction is needed in the case of (spoken) commentaries on formal (state) occasions (30:142):
  The Prime Minister will have the opening speech now.
- distant future is also possible (e.g. promise, weak volition), even if it involves little or no planning (cf. Future Continuous):
  Jane will return home (one day).

Although the time of (re)action is subjective, this tense form reflects that it is "psychologically immediate for the speaker" (75:119); furthermore, we cannot separate these meanings from near or distant future predictions and their entailments (such as promise or threat, detailed in further uses of *will*).

⑩ *will* in Future Continuous reflects:

- "greater certainty" (75:119) compared to Future Simple, as more planning time is available, including past or present evidence or circumstances to predict a future event; it may be regarded as "future as a matter of course" (77:285–286):
  The Does will be relaxing next Sunday.

⑪ *will* combined with the perfective construction (*will* + *have* + III.) results in:

- either Future Perfect Simple (cf. 2.11.) or – in rare cases – a logical deduction referring to the past,[40] similarly to must (cf. emphasised logical inevitability):
  The colonel won't have heard the news, I presume.
  I will have grown a beard by the time the Does return home.
  The Does will have finished the mission by now. (less typical)
  The Does must have finished the mission by now. (more typical)

⑫ *will* in Future Perfect Continuous describes events:

- started in the past and based on present evidence will extend well into future beyond a certain point (cf. prediction detailed below):
  In 2020 the Does will have been fighting in the jungle for 12 years.

All the four future tenses above combine temporal and modal meanings (promises, agreements, hopes, desires, intentions or plans) due to *will*, as future and modal function of *will* and *shall* "can hardly be separated" (29:87). These tenses may be contrasted with "non-modal expressions of a future event as fact" (75:117):

- ① Present Simple expresses 'pure facts', outside the speaker's control:
  We attack at dawn.
- ② Present Continuous expresses 'premeditated', planned actions:
  We are attacking at dawn.
- ⑬ Going to Future expresses actions 'premeditated' for long or "looking forward on the basis of evidence available at the moment of speaking" (75:117):
  We are going to attack at dawn.

The auxiliary function of *will* is more evident when the negative and interrogative forms of these tenses are constructed, making use of *will* (*not*) and *won't*:

The Does will not return from Neverland in 2028.
Will the Does return from Neverland in 2028?

[40] 8:198, 11:433, 15:249.

The modal *will* is employed in less temporal and more modal events as well, such as prediction, volition, power or conditionality, detailed below:

7.3.15.2. Will – prediction

- predictioneflects a specific 'modal way' of looking at *will* connected to uncertain but possible, or probable future time. *Will* is "inevitably linked to the state prevailing at the moment of speaking", but regarding future events (75:119) and in case of predictions these may be both near and distant (58:107–128):
  You will go crazy before finishing this book. (It shouldn't take too long.)
  Jane will be the head of the CIA. (one day)
- prediction-based inevitability is less temporal and more logical compared to the future auxiliary use of will (75:117); it offers subjective projections into the future taking into consideration both past and present facts; thus it is evidence-based, knowledge-based or circumstantial, but the speaker is confident enough, making use of past and present actions labelled as: repeated actions, habits (characteristic to), typical behaviour, routine, 'world knowledge', 'universal truth',[41] or 'common sense':[42]
  Boys will be boys.
  A drowning man will clutch at a straw. (proverb)
  Accidents will happen in the best regulated families. (proverb)
- inanimate objects with characteristic behaviour may be listed here (they cannot help about it):
  Iron will rust over time. (Whatever you do. / Unless you paint it.)
- all these repeated events display certain predisposition for similar actions in the future: once they regularly happened in the past or present, they will inevitably happen again, thus the speaker is confident enough to make these subjective projections;
- more **emphatic future projections** are possible if the speaker is not satisfied with the current state or repeated events; negative predictions or projections are labelled as: annoyance, complaint, impatience, criticism, obstinacy, determination[43] and *will* (*not*) is stressed (leading to volition in the next section):
  He 'will drink his beer in that corner of the pub every afternoon.
  (Whatever you do.)
  Whatever happens, I 'will not quit smoking.
  He 'will sit on that bench every afternoon.
- present or future state predictions[44] are more explicit as presumptions (22:314), forecasting (15:245) and conjecture, in which case less evidence is available, and more feeling is involved.

We have seen that predictions may be neutral (e.g. based on habits) or associated with (usually negative) feelings, whose intensity may lead to varying degrees of volition and power.

7.3.15.3. Will – volition

Volition, similarly to prediction, is dynamic. Although rather subjective – it may range from 'strong' to 'weak' (36:229), thus overlapping with predictions; the dynamic aspect of

[41] cf. 'This is the way of life.'
[42] 12:69, 8:199, 10:51, 15:245, 77:282–286.
[43] 8:198, 41:616–618, 43:120, 45:191.
[44] 11:433, 15:245.

volition derives from its subject-orientedness (30:36), focusing on the volition of the subject, without considering **opinion** (epistemic) or **attitude** (deontic); nevertheless, a detailed analysis of *will* proves that both *will* and *shall* "are fully modal" (30:133):

- strong volition (15:245) may stem from repeated actions or habits (30:133), and it includes willingness, insistence, determination, obstinacy,[45] or refusal (unwillingness):
  I 'will build my own house. (Whatever happens.)
  I 'will marry Susan. (Don't tell me to marry her sister.)
  In these cases, *will* is stressed and no contracted form is used (15:248).
- a less polite substitute for the strong volition of *will* is *want to* (16:250), while a semi-modal construction is [aiw] *willing to*:
  I want you to listen to me very carefully.
  Jane is not willing to negotiate.
- weak volition (15:245) may be connected to willingness,[46] acceptance (8:198), resignation (65:178), promise,[47] (weaker) intention,[48] arrangement (75:116), agreement, (re)assurance, plan, desire, hope, belief, (very modest) wish (15:245), or suggestion:
  I will talk to Jane about the mission.
  That'll do.
  That'll be enough.
  Don't worry about John. I'll let him know about the news.
  You will know that John is hurt, won't you?
  Will you drop by?
  Won't you try this? (~ Are you willing to?)
- (over-)polite requests[49] may be associated with both volition and power:
  Will you do that for me, please?
  If you will be so kind as to listen, I will explain these shards in a minute.
- as categorising volition with labels of strong, weak or intermediary is rather subjective (depending on the speakers and circumstances), for instance preference may belong to any of three:
  I will choose the black one. (strong ~ no further comments)
  I will choose the black one. (intermediary ~ if you ask me)
  I will choose the black one. (weak ~ they're all the same, I don't care)
- concession is connected to weak volition, when *will* functions as a weak verb, detailed below.

7.3.15.4. Will – power

- this is reflected in various cases when the speaker has the power or feels in control to influence future events for personal and common benefit:
- **obligation** (77:282–286) with the possibility of distancing:[50]
  You will do as I say (or else…)
  You will have to give me an explanation for that!
  I'll have to ask you to leave now. (compelling and distancing)
  I'm afraid you'll need to open your suitcase. (compelling and distancing)

[45] 11:432, 65:178.
[46] 30:33, 41:616–618.
[47] Promise in 11:432; however, this may also be interpreted as threat, cf. 43:118–119.
[48] 11:432, 17:153, 77:284.
[49] 11:433, 65:178.
[50] 41:616–618, 45:193.

- **orders**, commands may be exercised in certain hierarchical establishments (especially in the army, educational and correctional facilities, cf. 4:276):
  Jane will do as the colonel says.
  Soldiers will not harm civilians. (cf. the 'biblical' *You shall not kill.*)
  Keep quiet, will you!
- **rules**, regulations, instructions, laws or signs expressing power (30:133, 142) are formal (direct or less direct) orders (45:193), often used in written style (official documents, rules, exams, competitions):
  Visitors will wear a tag on the premises.
  The exam will start at 9 a.m. No delays will be accepted.
  Trespassers will be prosecuted. (passive voice)
- **threats** may be associated with promises:[51]
  Do it or I'll call John!
  I'll get it.
- warnings:
  Jane will get into trouble with so many thugs.
- **imperative** offer or request together with a **question tag**:
  Take it, will you?
  (Just) come over here, will you? (urging)
  Listen to me, will you?
  Listen to me, won't you?
  You won't marry him, will you?
- **indirect request** with a third person may be also used (30:135):
  I'm sure John will file a report about the mission asap. (You make sure of that.)
- the nature of request may be misleading (regarding its power); if taken out of context, it may prove difficult to decide whether it is **polite**, **tentative** (45:192), **indirect** or not:
  I'm sure you will file a report about the mission asap.
- firm **intention** (41:616–618, cf. volition => willingness, etc.):
  I will definitely handle the case once and for all.
- both power and volition are strongly associated with negative-oriented speech acts, such as: unwillingness (41:616–618), obstinacy, refusal (42:109–111), objection, prohibition, surprise or indignation expressed with *will not* or *won't*:
  I won't marry you!
  She won't help with the household chores.
  John will not accept the colonel's remarks.
- interestingly, this applies to inanimate objects as well:
  The laptop won't start.
- alternative expressions for *won't* are *refuse to*, [aiw] *unwilling to* (15:249):
  She refuses to help with the household chores.
  She is unwilling to help with the household chores.

7.3.15.5. Will – conditionality

This may rely on past or present circumstantial evidence or knowledge (cf. prediction, certainty, possibility, habit), especially the conditional clause:[52]

- prediction may be interpreted as an elliptical conditional sentence (cf. 5.4.1., type I conditional):

[51] 41:616–618, 43:118–119.
[52] 30:138, 77:282–286.

Jane won't be late (unless she has a very good reason for that).
The colonel will give the order (if needed).

- the non-elliptical versions may lead to 'conditioned' habits' with little temporal relevance (11:433):
  Jane will return home if the mission is over. (~ in case)
  Jane will cry if you mention her father. (~ whenever)
- the dividing line between volition and condition may be also thin (cf. 30:140):
  I won't marry you, unless we move far away from your mother.
  Iron will rust over time if it is in the open air.
- the conditional subordinate clause may contain *will* to express various speech acts or prediction, volition or power, such as emphasised insistence, willingness, refusal (44:152), polite or tentative request, acceptance, modest wish, etc.:
  If you will keep to your version, I think it's better for me to resign.
  If you won't marry my daughter, I'm gonna have to shoot you. (wouldn't)
  Will you help me if I prove I'm innocent?
  If the Does will insist to return to Neverland, let them go.
  If you will wait for a second, I may be able to check it in the database.

7.3.15.6. Will – other modal verbs

- *will* combined with the perfective construction (*will* + *have* + III.) results in either ⑪ Future Perfect Simple (cf. 2.11.) or – in rare cases – a logical deduction referring to the past,[53] similarly to *must*:
  The colonel won't have heard the news, I presume.
  I will have grown a beard by the time the Does return home.
  The Does will have finished the mission by now. (less typical)
  The Does must have finished the mission by now. (more typical)
- the probability aspect of *will* may be questionable, arguing that instead of belief it expresses judgement, similarly to *must* (30:58); thus *will* may be paraphrased as "reasonable to expect" (30:57); so *will* refers to a reasonable conclusion (based on strong evidence) and *must* to the "only possible conclusion" based on the available evidence:
  John will be happy to meet Jane after three months.
- the emphasised will reflects a highly probable (or necessary) conclusion coming close to *must*, which is nevertheless associated with "envisaged, planned, intended, hoped" (30:140) and even desired:
  John will prevail, as usual. (expectation, promise & confidence)
  That'll be our next concern.
- both *must* and *will* are used for logical, evidence-based deductions, excluding other possibilities (77:282–286):
  This will be the shop where I saw the ad.
- the 'weakened' predictive meaning of *will* comes close to ability (36:229), associated with *can*:
  The bear will smash the pen's planks to get to the sheep. (~ can)
- inanimate objects with characteristic behaviour may be described with *will* or the existential *can*, as they cannot help about it (cf. 30:136):
  Iron will / can rust over time.
- prediction stemming from past or present typical behaviour may lead to criticism (43:120), which is referred to by *will* or *would*:

[53] 8:198, 11:433, 15:249.

Shrek 'will keep to his habits.
Shrek wouldn't change his habits. (unwilling)
Shrek would live in peace and quiet in his swamp until Donkey made his appearance.

- (over-)polite request[54] or disagreement (45:193) associated with volition or power can be formulated with *will* or *would* (more polite, cf. remote form); these are rather frequently associated with conditionality:
  Will you do that for me, please?
  Would you do that for me, please?
  If you will be so kind as to listen, I can explain these shards.
  If you would be so kind as to listen, I could explain these shards.
  If you will keep to your version, I think it's better for me to resign.
  If you wouldn't change your version, I think it's better for me to resign.
  If you won't marry my daughter, I'm gonna have to shoot you.
  If you wouldn't marry my daughter, I'm gonna have to shoot you.

7.3.15.7. Will – weak verb

- as a weak verb, its use is rather restricted, such as expressing wants, wishes (11:432) or being part of various concessive structures (stock phrases):
  Finish the job when you will, as it is not urgent.
  Jane willed herself not to think of John too much.
  I am not willing to do that. (cf. *would, was willing*, 44:152)
  Try as you will, but I don't think you can make it alive.
  Try as you will, but you can't predict what's gonna happen.
  Say what you will, but the Does are the best.
  He that wills the end wills the means. (proverb)
  Strong-willed people like Jane are in great demand. (adjectival use)

7.3.15.8. Will – various forms

- the shortened form (*'ll*) is not a whimsical alternative to *will*, as this unstressed form expresses "weak inevitability" with "no previous planning or arrangement, evidence, but involves and suggests something the speaker has control over" (75:117–118), often met in conditional sentences (75:118); this form is "the closest to become a 'pure' future' in English grammar" (75:120):
  I'll see what I can do for you.
- passive constructions emphasise "objective facts" (75:115):
  The issue will be dealt with.
- negative forms may be felt more "invigorating" (negating the modality or event, 30:151), often employed to express power and volition (cf. prohibition, refusal, etc.):
  Stress won't help in this case.
  It won't pay.
  I won't let you leave just like that.
  So the FCC won't let me be… (Eminem – *Without Me*)
- interrogative forms are found in the previously discussed question tags, or polite requests, rhetorical remarks (75:119):
  Will you show me how to use it? (~ Are you willing to?)
  Will I ever learn that 'Silence is golden'?

[54] 11:433, 65:178.

- negative-interrogative forms may be more casual, expressing lack of objection (22:313), surprise, indignation, polite requests, etc.:
  Won't you join us for lunch?
  You won't have heard the good news?
  Won't you drink milk? Why?
- it is interesting to observe the positive and negative alternation in question tags, which may be more or less polite, expressing irony, sarcasm, threat, impatience, etc.:
  Listen to me, will you? (~ warning)
  Listen to me, won't you? (~ impatience, annoyance)

After having gone through the major uses of *will*, we should draw the conclusion regarding its status as a modal and an auxiliary verb. The examples show that it is often difficult to distinguish its uses, so it may be convenient to refer to it as a modal-auxiliary. A more diplomatic formulation is that *will* is a formal auxiliary (cf. future tenses) and a functional modal verb:

Finish this section, will you?
OK, I'll do that right now.

We can summarize the major uses of *will* this way:

1. temporal => auxiliary for modal future tenses
2. inevitable events
3. evidence based statements
4. psychologically immediate
5. logical & modal use associated with:
   a. prediction
   b. volition
   c. power
   d. conditionality
   e. weak (*want* / *wish*)
6. specific forms: *'ll / won't*, question tag

7.3.16. Would

Would is another highly frequent modal verb ("whimperative", cf. 79:25), having a multitude of uses. It basically "introduces an element of psychological remoteness into what the speaker is saying", being the remote pair of *will* (75:73). As mentioned before, remoteness is a key concept in understanding relationships among modal verbs, and in the case of *will–would* we can mention various types of remoteness:[55]

- temporal remoteness;
- psychological remoteness, leading to
- tentative (conditional and hypothetical) remoteness;
- social remoteness (resulting in politer interpretations);

Thus *would* combines inevitability associated with *will* and remoteness at the same time. Its main uses are:

[55] 75:73, 30:58.

7.3.16.1. Would – auxiliary for Future-in-the-Past

The *would* structures refer to 'Future-in-the-Past'[56] cases, that is "true in certain circumstances, not those currently prevailing" (75:123) or "based on circumstantial knowledge" (77:282–286), signalling that *would* must be discussed as a conditional and hypothetical marker.

Grammar books refer to this shift from *will* to *would* as 'Future-in-the-Past', which actually means that all four Future tenses[57] have their past versions. If we had considered the past variants as separate tenses, we should have dealt with 17 tenses instead of 13. However, *will* and *would* are close enough in form and meaning to consider them variants of future auxiliary (11:434):

- *would* may be the past "replacement" of *will* (15:245), the "preterite for *will*" (17:153) in reported speech and sequence of tenses for the four future tenses:
  ⑨
  The Does will return from Neverland in 2018.
  The colonel announced that the Does would return from Neverland in 2018.
  ⑩
  The Does will be relaxing next Sunday.
  It was known that the Does would be relaxing next Sunday.
  ⑪
  I will have grown a beard by the time the Does return home.
  The colonel said that he would have grown a beard by then.
  ⑫
  In 2020 the Does will have been fighting in the jungle for 12 years.
  The HQ estimated that in 2020 the Does would have been fighting in the jungle for 12 years.
- *would* has been mentioned as an alternative to *used to* for frequent past actions in 2.5. ('frequentative' *would*);
- while *used to* expresses habitual past actions difficult to imagine to be repeated in the present or future due to a radical change of circumstances (death, different environment, etc.), *would* – being a remote modal form – is associated with nostalgia or longing (75:121), expressing psychological remoteness from frequent past events (which are not necessarily distant in time), without the air of finality of *used to*:
  When he was young, the colonel used to take part in dangerous deployments.
  When he was young, the colonel would spend little time with his family.

7.3.16.2. Would – prediction

- *would* is associated with evidence-based prediction (15:245), conclusions (77:282–286), presupposition, 'educated' guesses, which is similar to logical predictions of will or must; depending on the circumstances, this may be a vague opinion or certainty:[58]
  Don't ask the colonel about Jane's whereabouts as he wouldn't know the answer.
  I think John would be able to speak fluent Chinese in ten years.
  Indeed, that would be nice.

[56] Cf. temporal remoteness (75:121).
[57] Future Simple, Future Continuous, Future Perfect Simple, Future Perfect Continuous.
[58] Even if "nothing about the future is totally certain" (75:118).

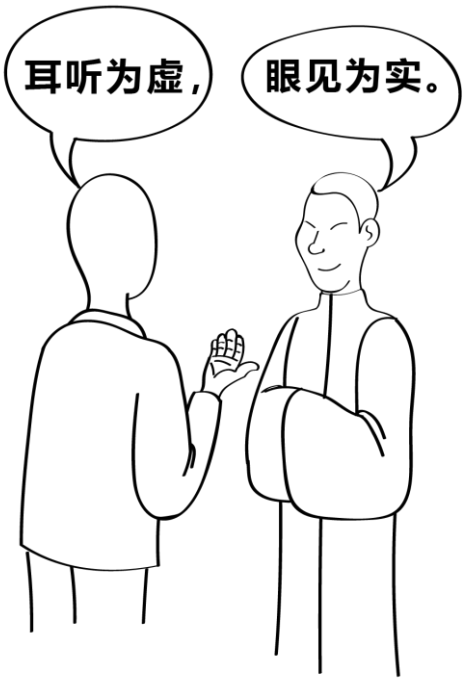


Illustration 49. John would be able to...

- psychological remoteness is visible by comparing the meaning of the following statements (cf. 75:121):

present fact present result	*I **am** surprised.* *I **have** never **expected** it.*
modal & future remoteness from fact	*I **will** be surprised (if…).*
modal remoteness psychological remoteness	*I **would** be surprised.* *I **would** never have expected it.*

Table 92. Modal and psychological remoteness

- the stressed negative form has evolved into a stock phrase expressing high certainty and denying responsibility or knowledge:
  I wouldn't know. (~ I am absolutely sure I have no clue about it.)
- however, *would*-predictions are weaker than those with *will*,[59] and they may be considered elliptical conditional sentences (cf. 77:282–286):
  "Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I remember. Involve me and I learn." That would be Benjamin Franklin.
  I wouldn't be surprised (if that is / was / were Benjamin Franklin).
- past unfulfilled assumptions may be formulated with *would* + *have* + III. verb form,[60] which may well be an elliptical conditional sentence (cf. conditionality of *would*):
  Your presence would have helped, probably.

[59] 15:245, 44:152.
[60] 26:73, 44:152.

The colonel would have known how to send air support to the Does (if he had been asked to).

- the 'frequentative' would may not be regarded as having special modal meanings (far more connected to Past Simple, cf. section 2.5.), yet it may be connected to past predictability, stemming from repeated events, habits or routines (44:152) in an elevated style:
  When in Rio, he would just watch the samba dancers.
- if the habit or characteristic behaviour is associated with negative feelings,[61] *would* is also used in an idiomatic reply; in this respect, *would* is 'in line' with other modal verbs (*could*, *might* or *should*), knowing that these strong feelings may be fake, turning to irony or humour:
  Jane shot three more thugs. Oh, she would!
  (~ I might / could have predicted it.)
  John 'will sharpen the knife again. Oh no, he wouldn't!
  (~ I should have known it.)

7.3.16.3. Would – volition and power

- although highly subjective, dynamic volition may be labelled as 'weak', 'intermediate' or 'strong' willingness,[62] associated with Future-in-the-Past cases:
  John promised Jane that he would fix the leaking roof the following week.
  John replied that he would accept the new mission.
  (~ He was willing to accept it.)
- 'strong' volition is mixed with power, expressing insistence, obstinacy, when the stressed *would* is used and no contracted form (*'d*) is possible (15:245):
  Whatever you do, the Does 'would sign up for another mission.
- very serious promise to do something (similarly to *will*, 8:201):
  And I would do anything for love
  I'd run right into hell and back
  I would do anything for love
  I'd never lie to you and that's a fact (Meatloaf)
- advice, recommendation may take the form of volition or refusal (22:318):
  'I'd buy that for a dollar.'
  I wouldn't trust anyone in the jungle (if I were you.)
- habits, repeated actions (present reference) may result in annoyance:
  He would (just) sit and drink his beer in that corner of the pub.
- power is more 'visible' when the annoyance or irritation takes the form of a question tag with *would* (cf. tags with *will*); in effect, the imperative combined with *would* is a hidden threat:
  Stop lying to me, would you?
  Listen to me more carefully, would you?
- requests for permission (15:245) are formulated with would:
  Would you let me in?
  Would you mind if I brought my fiancée to the party?
- offer (8:203), invitation (15:245), desire (45:193) or asking for preference is politer with *would*, as it is "the tentative form of *will*" (15:247), leading to hypothetical constructions; there are even tentative intensifiers, such as *by any chance, I suppose, of course* (15:246):

[61] Such as anger, annoyance, criticism, "feeling of exasperation" (36:229), grumble, irritation, etc.
[62] 15:245, 44:152.

Would you like to join us for dinner (by any chance)?
I would love to.
Shrek would prefer to stay out of trouble.

- a possible alternative for preference or invitation is would care (16:266):
  Would you care for a different approach?
- a much less polite alternative to preference is *want* (16:266):
  Do you want to join us?
- *would*-requests are politer and less authoritative than formulated with *will*; still, it may sound polite in a particular situation, but distancing as well (cf. 75:123):
  Would you consider this option as well? (in school)
  Would you (be so kind and) excuse me, (please)? (in a business relationship)
  I wouldn't refuse a dry Martini… (indirect / polite request, modest wish)
- *would* is the standard way of formal addressing to people ("complete strangers" 15:251), including the contracted version:
  I'd need a hand here.
- hedging (37:652) may be interpreted as a polite solution (compared to directness), and it can be well exemplified with *would* followed by specific verbs (*advise, imagine, recommend, say, suggest, think*), expressing the above-mentioned speech acts in a less direct way:
  I would say that paying a visit to her is the best option. (But it's your call.)

7.3.16.4. Would – conditionality and hypotheticality

Although we have discussed the English has no 'conditional tense' and specific 'conditional markers', *would* is indispensable in conditional sentences combined with temporal, psychological (tentative) or social remoteness.

Compared to *will*, *would* expresses a remote likelihood or probability, leading to hypothetical inevitability (75:121) in the main clauses (36:234) and forming the type II and type III conditional sentences,[63] expressing that these conditions are "true in certain circumstances, not those currently prevailing" (75:121):

- when followed by a I. verb form, it refers to present / future conditions:
  Jane would fire if she had to.
- however, there are many situations "where a conditional sense is understood but not stated" (32:67):
  Jane wouldn't agree with it. (If you asked her.)
- while combined with *have* + III. verb form, it refers to past (unfulfilled) conditions:
  Jane would have fired if she had been forced to.
- "explicit" condition is expressed with a specific structure (75:122):
  I would expect so.
- tentative (very polite or over-polite) requests,[64] modest wishes, suggestions, offers combine *would* and *if* in the same clause:
  If you would wait a moment please, the manager will be at your service.
  If you would like to have a go, here are the keys to the Porsche.
- *would* combined with *if* may also express resignation, acceptance (65:178):
  If the Does would insist on that, let them go.
- volition expressed with *would* (wishes, hopes) are also connected to hypothetical or analytical subjunctive constructions:

[63] Cf. sections 5.4.2. & 5.4.3.
[64] 65:178, 8:203, 30:158.

a) (modest) wishes (15:245), intentions (77:284) or preference may be expressed with *would like*:
I would like to be a millionaire.
Would you like to be a princess?
What would you have me do? (*~ What would you like me to do?* cf. 11:312)
b) modest wishes may be interpreted as personal desires leading to commands in a polite coating:
I would like you to do me a favour.
John wouldn't like to see any soldier left behind.
I would like a dry Martini, please.
c) emphasised wishes or reproaches in hypothetical and subjunctive constructions, implying if only, wish or even inversion (cf. 4.2.4.4.):
I wish the colonel would stop sending the Does into suicide missions!
If only Jane would return home happily!
Look at is as I would, I could not see the difference. (*~ however much*, cf. 11:312)
Would to God they were alive!
d) further possibilities to express wishes with *would* are part of specific constructions (*would better, would rather, would sooner*) and are dealt with in the next section.

7.3.16.5. Would – forms

- the affirmative *would* has either present tentative or past reference, based on the context:
  John would meet the neighbours once a week. (~ When he lived in the area.)
  John would meet the neighbours once a week. (~ If he were at home for long.)
- a definite past context is possible with *would* + *have* + III. verb form:
  Jane would have listened to the colonel.
- the negative form (*wouldn't*) is associated with both power and volition (similarly to *won't*), expressing refusal, obstinacy, determination, disagreement (45:193), being valid for both the animate and the inanimate:
  Jane wouldn't listen to the colonel.
  Jane wouldn't tell us the truth.
  The smoke wouldn't come out of the chimney, filling the room.
  The web browser wouldn't open, so I have to reinstall it.
- alternative constructions are *refuse to* and [aiw] *unwilling to* (15:249):
  I guess Jane will refuse to tell us the truth.
  Jane was unwilling to tell us the truth.
- the interrogative form typically expresses tentative politeness:
  Would you do me a favour?

7.3.17. Would rather, ~ sooner, ~ better

All three modal idioms (36:1183) are similar in meaning, although *would rather* is the most frequent.[65] They are formally viewed as *would* completed with *rather* (30:167), *sooner* or *better*, where *would* is the remote form of *will*, hence resulting in a volitional *would prefer* to semi-modal function (36:142). *Would* is often contracted (*'d*), and the constructions express realistic wishes by choosing a more favourable option.[66]

When discussing *would rather*, at least two main structures should be differentiated:

[65] According to 33:258. *Would sooner* is more frequent in AE, while a most rare structure similar in meaning is *would just as soon* (37:669, 3:159): *I would (just) as soon stay at home as go for a wal*k.
[66] Cf. preference (16:266, 30:167)

1. when there is only one subject involved (hence it is hidden instead of being referred to it twice), the personal preference[67] takes the form of:

- *would rather* + I. verb form for present or future time reference:
  ***S + would rather + (S) +* I.**
  I would rather meet the Does at a party than in Neverland.
  I'd rather stay out of this.
  I'd sooner have a light meal for dinner.
  Sooner than accept his mistakes, the colonel would resign.
  (inversion for emphasis)
- the negative form signals an undesirable option:
  I'd rather not tell you what happened in Neverland.
  I'd rather not tell you my secret.
- *would rather* + *have* + III. verb form for past regrets:
  S + would rather + (S) + have III.
  I'd rather have stayed out of this.
  I'd rather not have listened to you.
  If I had had the chance to study abroad, I'd rather have chosen a Nordic country.

2. when different subjects are involved (33:259), the first subject prefers something for the second one; we can have two types of hypothetical or unreal constructions (39:95):

- present wishes or desirable events in the present or future (13:362), when the remote verb form (II.) is in accordance with a less probable situation; further possible interpretations are "tentative politeness rather than hypothetical meaning" (36:1011), polite refusal or making suggestions:
  S1 + would rather + S2 + II.
  I'd rather you stayed out of this.
  I'd rather you didn't mention her name.
- stress may be important to draw attention on the preference (cf. 54:180):
  I'd rather 'you stayed out of this. (and not somebody else)
  I'd rather you 'stayed out of this. (and don't get involved)
- emphasis may be added to the preference by inversion (3:159):
  Rather than contradict the colonel, John would sacrifice his life.
  Sooner than accept the truth, the colonel would resign.
- past regrets, unfulfilled wishes are expressed with *would rather* and *had* + III. verb forms, although hypothesizing about the past is more common with wish (67:156):
  S1 + would rather + S2 + had III.
  I'd rather John had seen the other side of the coin as well.
  I'd rather John hadn't been involved in the last mission.
  I wish John hadn't been involved.

Modal verbs may also appear in the construction:

I'd rather you would come tomorrow for the money.
I'd rather John would have followed the colonel's orders.
I'd rather you could give me a lift before the sun goes down.
I'd rather you could have avoided the bullets.

[67] 40:226, 44:175, 13:360.

Possible alternatives[68] to these constructions are expressed with the verb *prefer*:

I prefer death to / over shame.
I prefer swimming to tanning.
I (would) prefer to wash the dishes rather than dust the furniture.
I'd prefer it if you didn't scatter my things all around the house.
(present / future)
I'd prefer it if you hadn't watched the film alone.
I'd prefer it if you could have seen the incident for yourself.

Would rather may also be compared to *had better*, which expresses advice (hinting at possible – usually negative – consequences in case of not following the advice), while *would rather* shows the 'preferable' way.

7.3.18. Shall

Compared to the other central modal verbs, the modal use of *shall* is limited (15:253) and declining (77:287). In theory, it is the pair of *will* (especially inevitability), completed with a personal overtone: "if it is anything to with me, the speaker" (cf. 75:120), although the difference is rarely felt:

- *will* asks for the listener's opinion:
  When will we meet again?
  (You can predict it; I am not involved.)
- *shall* reveals personal involvement or commitment in the arrangements:
  When shall we meet again?

Major uses of *shall* are listed in the following sections.

7.3.18.1. Shall – auxiliary

- auxiliary for future tenses for the first person singular and plural; this use is typically restricted to British English or formal and old-fashioned style (77:287–288):
  I shall make him understand it.
  We shall arrive there in three minutes.
- the negative form is *shall not* (more emphasised negative), also having a contracted form (*shan't*);
- however, this use is disappearing, not mentioning that it is not considered a modal verb in this sense; as such, "it is often difficult, if not impossible, to decide in a given example whether the meaning is simply one of futurity or of an undertaking" (30:75):
  I shan't listen to your whining all day long.
  We shan't spend too much time at the Hoover Dam.

7.3.18.2. Shall – volition (deontic)

- "strong" volition (15:253), insistence (29:99) or "strong" determination (22:309), which may be a 'guarantee' that the action will happen (30:74), associated with power discussed in the following:
  So shall it ever be! (expression)

[68] 7:184, 74:213.

- "intermediate" or "weak", dynamic volition (15:253), intention (29:99) or willingness (8:204) of the speaker:
  I shan't help you under any circumstances.
  We shall do it again.
  I shan't be long.
- polite requests, offers, proposals (30:79), suggestions may be expressed with *shall*:
  Shall I ask for Jane's phone number?
  Shall I pour you a drink?
  Shall we try it again, please?
- advice, request for opinion, ask for help or instructions (77:287–288), wishes or instructions (29:99), often express puzzlement or perplexity or waiting for order, disposition (22:311):
  Shall I enter the jungle alone?
  Shall I support the candidate in my neighbourhood?
  What shall I do not to offend he?
  What shall we do with a drunken sailor?
  (sea shanty)
- a special request or suggestion is the imperative urge with *let*, always finalized with *shall*:
  Let's stop for a moment, shall we?
  Let's finish what we've come for, shall we?

In these cases, the subject is typically first person (15:253), and the interrogative form reflects that the subject is interested in the listener's volition (be it weak, intermediate or strong).

7.3.18.3. Shall – prediction

- prediction is connected to (distant) future ability or possibility, promise, prediction:
  You shall make a good doctor. (encouragement or based on facts)
- *shall* may be combined with *if*:
  If you don't quit smoking, you shall end up like me.

7.3.18.4. Shall – power (deontic volition)

Prohibition or obligation with *shall* is one of the strongest manifestation of power, especially on the negative scale; an air of 'I personally guarantee' (30:74) makes *shall* seem stronger than *must*:

- rules; the Ten Commandments in the Bible express the strongest type of prohibition:
  You shall not murder.
  You shall not commit adultery.
  You shall not steal.
  You shall not give false testimony against your neighbour.
  You shall not covet your neighbour's house. You shall not covet your neighbour's wife, or his manservant or maidservant, his ox or donkey, or anything that belongs to your neighbour. (NIV, Exodus 20,13-17.)

- interestingly, newer Bible editions[69] replace shall with other modal verbs (proof that *shall* lost some of its 'strength' and use over the centuries), or they completely exclude modal verbs:
  You must not murder. (New Living Translation)
  You are not to commit murder. (International Standard Version)
  Do not commit adultery. (New Heart English Bible)
  Never murder. (GOD'S WORD® Translation)
- present day commands, orders (40:208) are usually expressed by:
  a) the Imperative Mood:
  Always tell the truth! Never lie!
  b) the negative form of Present Simple:
  Don't do that. (Luke to Yoda on their first encounter, cf. *Star Wars V*)
  c) (written) obligations, formal orders, rules, regulations, laws, legal documents,[70] proclamations, pacts, agreements, treaties and contracts (22:310), in which cases shall is stressed, so it cannot be contracted; this is the domain of 'legal English' (75:120) or 'legalese':[71]
  Employees shall occupy their cubicles before 9 a.m.
  Debtors shall be sent to prison within two days. (distancing passive construction)
  The jury shall meet on Friday, 11 a.m.
  d) non-formal orders, commands are also expressed with *shall*, which is both archaic and 'authoritarian' in tone" (36:230), as it is typically a self-imposed obligation:
  You shall clean the bathroom because I say so.
- promises (40:208) with *shall* sound more reliable compared to will-promises (cf. Future Simple), completed with the personal involvement ('guarantee') mentioned in connection with its auxiliary use:
  You shall be invited to our wedding. (~ There's no need to worry.)
  Don't worry, we shall never surrender!
  You shall have the job done by dawn.
- threat[72] or warning may appear when prohibition is not taken into consideration:
  Whatever you do, you shall not (shan't) pass the test. (*~ will not, won't*)
- as correctly observed (8:180), *shall* refers to promise (positive) or threat (negative) deriving from the combined meaning with the weak verb, but the meaning of *shall* is rather diverse, depending on the circumstances and the relationship between the speakers (similarly to *will*): promise, threat, intention, determination, certainty, etc. (8:204);
- the ultimate question is whether these meanings derive from the modal meaning, modal and weak verb combination or even 'world knowledge':[73]
  I shall send a notification to your parents.
  I shall be meeting the colonel on Friday.

A final word is that non-native speakers tend to avoid the use of *shall*, and it has even been suggested that only two uses of *shall* are necessary for classroom use (75:120):

[69] http://biblehub.com/exodus/20-13.htm, 01. 03. 2017.
[70] 15:254, 77:287–288.
[71] In one single document of the European Union of 146 pages (European Parliament, 18.6.2008, Position of the European Parliament, EP-PE_TC1-COD(2007)0262 _EN, accessed on 12.04.2012) we could track as many as 616 (!) instances of *shall* (often in passive structures), compared to *should* (74), *can* (2), *cannot* (10), *will* (2), *would* (1), could (0),*may* (57), *might* (0), or *must* (62), cf. 25:145.
[72] 11:430, 22:309, 40:208, 77:287–288.
[73] 8:205, 30:75.

Let's finish it, shall we?
Shall I offer you a drink?

7.3.19. Should

The **desirability** of *should* is easy to understand for non-native speakers; in this respect, the "best starting point" to describe *should* "is deontic *must*" (1:941), as otherwise it is a "much less tidy modal auxiliary" (75:124) causing "greatest potential confusion" (75:114) with more than one primary semantic feature.

It is "non-factual", "hypothetical" (cf. *would*), "psychologically distant form the speaker at the moment of speaking" and the speaker is involved (75:124). Major uses are partially similar to *shall*, being its formal past, although it has no past meaning by itself (30:13):

7.3.19.1. Should – obligation

In this sense, *should* is similar to *must* or *have to*, expressing deontic necessity (77:291):

- compared to *shall*, *must* or *can't*, where the obligation is imposed by the speaker (rules, orders), the obligation is less strict or categorical with *should*,[74] as they stem from "moral or social codes" (15:258), "social norms and expectations" (1:941) or "everyday and practical matters that are morally desirable" (39:39), such as duty, responsibility, civility, common sense, right / wrong, wise, reasonable, because this is "the way the world must be constituted" in the speaker's opinion (77:288–291);
- it is considered that "the speaker takes responsibility for the judgement" without involvement (30:13):
  People should be happier. (but probably won't)
- the negative form negates the proposition: 'it is necessary not to act' (30:125):
  People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones. (proverb)
- *should* leaves more room for "the doer's reluctance to comply", hence it is considered politer than *must* (1:943), even if it is also "regulative" (46:261):
  You should remember your promises.
  You must remember your promises.
- the *should*-obligation will hardly fulfil, while the *must*- or *have to*-obligation is taken more seriously (and not avoided, 15:264):
  Donkey should stop talking all the time.
  Shrek must learn the importance of family.
  (If he doesn't want to be alone for Christmas).
- *should* combined with past reference (*should* + *have* + III.) may express dissatisfaction, remorse, sorrow, reproach, complaint, expectation or criticism about past (un)fulfilled events or duties (15:260):
  Jane should have told the colonel about the marriage earlier.
  John shouldn't have let the thugs escape in the bushes.
  The colonel shouldn't hold with the hare and run with the hounds.

[74] 2:84, 15:257.

Illustration 50. The colonel shouldn't...

- formulating suggestion, advice, recommendation (26:65), even relying on conscience or common sense (cf. 'moral obligation', similarly to *ought to*); no wonder that *should* is labelled as 'the conductor of life' (8:205–206), telling what is right or wrong in the form "as far as I can see it is reasonable to assume" (75:124):
  You should help the people I need.
  ('imposed' volition due to the potential of the doer)
- *should* (especially followed by a continuous verb form) may express that the action is quite different from the one desirable (cf. 33:139); when they are just thoughts, it may be interesting to complete the elliptical part:
  I should hang up (instead of listening to your bullshit).
  I should be working in the garden (instead of relaxing here in the hammock).
- compared to *shall*, the sentence does not express command, as the addressee can opt for following the advice or not; yet, a *should*-advice may extend from:

a) a friendly remark:
   You should help me. I'm lost. (Any help would be appreciated.)
b) to a hidden threat, depending on the relationship between the interlocutors:
   Jane should keep in touch with the HQ.
   (1. But it is up to her. 2. Because she was told so by the colonel.)

- further examples also prove that the element of desirability (cf. 1:932) is always present:
  Readers should return the books within 14 days. (~ have to, must)
  People shouldn't complain about the hardships of life. (~ ought not to)
  (But they 'will complain, as it is their nature and they can't help about it.)
- the interrogative *should* may ask for advice (similarly to *shall*, cf. indecision) when being uncertain, or display a certain tentative meaning (28:208):
  'Should I stay or should I go?' (The Clash)

Should I try alternative medicine?
Do you think we should buy Jane a present or invite her out for dinner?

- disapproval, criticism (26:65) or reproach may be formulated with either affirmative or negative structures referring to both present / future and past:
  The Does shouldn't be left by themselves in the jungle.
  The colonel should think about the possible collateral damage in advance.
  The colonel should have thought about the possible collateral damage in advance.
- when used in passive voice, *should* may be changed to *be recommended, be suitable, be advisable* (22:332):
  It is recommended to arrive at meetings in time.
- when used in reported speech, *should* may be changed to *advise* or *suggest*:
  Jane was advised to contact HQ asap.
  It was suggested that John should abandon the mission at once.

7.3.19.2. Should – logical necessity (epistemic)

Should "does not express necessity" (30:59), being closer to likelihood or reasonable assumption; yet, it may be stated that *should* expresses epistemic modality (1:932) or "evidence based supposition" (77:291), even if it always "retains an overtone of desirability" (1:932). This is often connected to future actions (30:127), detailed below:

- *should* is "less categorical than *must*" (15:257), expressing greater uncertainty (14:64) when logical necessity or probability (41:509) is involved; this may be based on past experience or "sensible actions" (12:136), expectations,[75] "probably true now or will probably be true in the future" (35:34) or "anticipations of something probable" (15:261); yet, expectations may prove wrong, while deductions with *must* are evidence-based:
  John should be able to handle the situation.
- past expectations are formulated with the perfective (*should* + *have* + III. verb form), which – based on the context – may have at least two interpretations:
  a) an educated guess, expectation, as it "was supposed to happen" (26:72):
  The Does should have finished the mission by now.
  b) impatience and criticism (26:72), being closer to the deontic desirability (cf. "deontic overtone", 1:943); this criticism is not detected in non-perfective forms (33:146):
  The Does should have finished the mission by now.
  (So I would like to have the confirmation.)
- the negative form of the prefect construction (*shouldn't have* + III. verb form) may be a "polite expression of thanks on receiving a gift or a favour" (26:72) mixed with reluctance to accept:
  I've got us two tickets for the opera. Oh, you shouldn't have!

7.3.19.3. Should – conditionality

Should appears in conditional sentences (Chapter 5) and clauses (87:188) with specific meanings:

- *should* with a first person subject and *would* are "markers of hypothetical meaning" (36:234) in main clauses:
  If we were in the same boat, we should have to cooperate.
- certain conditional connectors (cf. 5.3.) are often used together with *should*, resulting in indirect questions (cf. 'transferred negation'):

[75] 8:209, 26:65.

I don't know whether we should discuss it here.
I don't know why we should discuss it here.
John was wondering how he should find a way out of that.

- *if* and *should* in the same clause results in a highly unexpected and improbable – although possible – supposition[76] or "doubtful" views (76:153), as well as a "tentative condition" (29:100); the inverted forms are much more emphatic and literary:
  If you should meet John, tell him the colonel needs him.
  If you should meet the Does in Neverland, beware of them.
  If you should (ever) meet the Does in Neverland, beware of them.
  If you should happen to think about marriage, forget about it.
  Should you find gold in Alaska, buy me a ranch.
  Should you (ever) meet the Does in Neverland, beware of them.
- polite rhetorical (indirect) questions may contain *should* to express indecision:
  I wonder if I shouldn't ask her to come urgently. (cf. an "extra negative", 41:239)
  I was wondering if I should set up my own company.

7.3.19.4. Should – further meanings

- *wh*-questions with *should* may express various – usually strong negative – feelings, such as anger, surprise, despair, indignation, irritation, rejection, shock, disbelief, uncertainty:[77]
  How (on earth) should I help her?
  Why should I bother with you?
  Reading a book, what should I discover but a tip to get rich.
  Why should I know the answer?
  How should I have known that he was going to disappear from my life?
  Who should return safe and sound but Jane and John.
  (special meaning, cf. 75:125)

7.3.19.5. Should – other structures

- *shall* turns to *should* in reported speech:
  Shall I help her?
  He wondered if he should help her.
- *should* is frequently used in Subjunctive Mood, in so-called nominal *that*-clauses (cf. mandative, putative, purposive detailed in 4.2.4.1.):
- following certain adjectives:
  It is very important that we should follow the rules. (academic language)
- possible alternatives are:
  It is very important that we follow the rules.
  It is very important that we followed the rules.
- a particular set of adjectives combined with should (funny, interesting, odd, strange, surprised, surprising, typical) express **chance**:[78]
  It's strange that we should be talking about what happened in Neverland.
- other adjectives are:[79]

[76] 13:300, 35:200, 65:178, 41:237.
[77] 8:212, 15:262, 42:226–228.
[78] 26:65, 34:68.
[79] 4:283, 8:211.

Word cloud 17. Adjective + that + *should*

- certain verbs (*advise, ask, command, demand, insist, order, propose, recommend, suggest*) or nouns derived from these verbs (proposal, recommendation, suggestion) trigger the use of *should*:[80]
  The colonel ordered that the Does should finish the mission by dawn.
  My suggestion is that you should start your journey in spring.
- when *that*-clauses express certain emotions (sorrow, surprise, joy) containing *should*, it is referred to as '**putative'** *should* (29:784);
- *should* may be combined with *lest* in purpose clauses, although not exclusively (*will / would, can / could, may / might, shall / should*):[81]
  Listen to me lest you should get into trouble.
  ('so that not to', 'in order not to')
  Listen to me so that you shouldn't get into trouble.
  (Listen to me in order not to get into trouble.)
- concessive structures with emphasised *wh*-question words:
  John can't give up, whatever should happen.
  However difficult it should sound, it is worth the effort the attack at dawn.

7.3.19.6. Should – idiomatic

- the use of *should* may be triggered by certain idiomatic structures:
  I see no reason why Jane should fire at will.
  John's got no idea why Jane should have left her bulletproof vest at the camp.
- following *wh*-question words in object clauses:
  I don't know why the Does should always be the first option.
  John thinks they should never give up.

7.3.19.7. Should – non-modal uses

A non-modal use of *should* is observed when starting the sentence, followed by specific verbs, such as *guess, imagine, point out, say, stress,* or *think*, in order to draw attention upon something important.[82]

- thus it can express a "less direct" opinion (26:65):
  I should guess at this stage that the Does have already landed in Neverland.
  I should think that the colonel does not like collateral damage.

[80] 8:210, 34:68.
[81] This is rather archaic, cf. 11:310.
[82] 4:282, 8:213.

Will the Does return? I should think so. I should hope so.
(~ *I'm inclined to think so.*, cf. 22:312)
Will the colonel be satisfied? I shouldn't think so. He never is.
I should say that the Does are in their forties.
(~ *I daresay*, cf. 22:312)

- it should be stressed that *should* has no modal function in these structures.
- *should* can "emphasise unlikelihood" combined with *in case* (26:65):
  The Does are talking to the Air Force Commander in case they should need support.
- a non-modal *should* may function as an uncountable noun (8:213):
  You have to forget the 'shoulds' in life if you want to be happy. (Megan E. Mills)[83]
- a possible alternative is *am / are / is / was / were supposed to*, expressing a "less strong obligation" (35:34):
  Jane is supposed to be home by 9 o'clock.

7.3.20. Ought (to)

The form of *ought* is controversial, as some grammars refers to it as *ought*,[84] while others as *ought to*, which is an important distinction as *ought* is considered a marginal modal verb due to the *to* particle (77:300), which is nevertheless "not used" in question tags (41:375–376):

You ought to be at school now, oughtn't you?

While the affirmative form may alternate with *should*, negative and interrogative forms are more typical with *should* (9:160). A further notable difference is a syntactical one, as *should* is massively employed in subordinate clauses (cf. mandative, putative or purpose clauses).

As for the meaning, the two modal verbs "largely overlap" (30:122), which is why recent researches mention that no semantic differences should be considered (cf. 1:944). Still, some grammars take the effort to distinguish *should* and *ought*, the latter being:

- less frequently used (4:268);
- "stronger" (15:258) as orders stem from official sources;
- "more stressed";[85]
- "more official" (9:160);
- "more impersonal" (22:330);
- "more readily connected to moral obligation without constraints" (11:428).

The "best starting point" to describe the uses of *ought* "is deontic *must*" (1:941), mentioning that *must*-obligations are imposed by the speaker, while *ought* refers to "social norms and expectations", although "the doer's reluctance to comply" is felt (1:941). Various uses are detailed below.

7.3.20.1. Ought to – obligation (deontic)

- obligations or duties (15:262), which are not "necessarily fulfilled", similarly to *should*, as they are both 'necessity' modals, permitting the event not to take place, hence less explicit than *must* (30:123):

[83] http://thoughtcatalog.com/megan-e-mills/2016/04/you-have-to-forget-the-shoulds-in-life-if-you-want-to-be-happy/, 01. 03. 2017.
[84] 1:932, 33:137.
[85] 8:213, 15:257, 17:155.

John should wear his medals at the reception (but he won't).
You ought to take into consideration every aspect of your decision.

- *ought* expresses moral obligation, external, objective desirability (75:127) or 'good family upbringing', when the speaker "takes the responsibility for the judgment" (30:13); compared to *must*, it is more polite as possible reluctance is 'part of the equation' (cf. 1:941), even if *ought* "always retains an overtone of desirability" (1:932); in fact its most frequent use is associated with tentativeness or politeness (28:208):
  We ought to listen to our parents.
  We ought to arrive at meetings in time.
  You oughtn't to gossip about everything.
- advice, suggestion, recommendation, less direct orders (similarly to *should*), which "indicate a correct or sensible action" (15:263) or an "ideal or desired states of affairs" (37:659):
  You ought to listen to the colonel.
  Oughtn't you be at work now?
- reprimand, scolding, or reproach may stem from not acting sensibly or not fulfilling certain obligations or necessities, although weaker than *must* or *have to*:
  You ought to take care of yourself more.
  You ought to have taken care of yourself more.
  Jane oughtn't to go on mission by herself.
  Jane oughtn't to have used all her bullets last night.
  They oughtn't have refused the air support.
- the continuous form, similarly to *should*, reveals a foolish, insensible, immoral, rash acting (33:139), while something else should be done, which is felt socially, morally or personally acceptable:
  You ought to be helping your mother instead of gawking at Game of Thrones.
- interestingly, when *should* and *ought* are combined with comparative adverbs or adjectives, it implies the failure to comply with the expectations (30:123):
  Jane ought to be more careful with the thugs. She was wounded again!
- past reference is possible with *ought to* + *have* + III. verb form, expressing "unfulfilled duty or an action that was neglected" (12:136), past desires or criticism (15:263), but used only rarely and in formal style (37:660):
  The Does ought to have taken more ammo.
  The USAF ought to have known that the Does required air support.
  The Does oughtn't have started the action by themselves.
  (fulfilled, but undesired, 22:331)
- when used in passive voice, *ought* may be changed to be recommended, be suitable, be advisable (22:332):
  It is recommended to arrive at meetings in time.
- when used in reported speech, *ought* may be changed to advise or suggest:
  Jane was advised to contact the HQ asap.
  It was suggested that John should abandon the mission at once.

7.3.20.2. Ought to – necessity

In this case we are faced with subjective perception or objective necessity (cf. 75:127):

- expectation, probability, prediction[86] or "sensible action" (12:136); logical deduction expressed by *must* stems from more evidence:

[86] 11:429, 15:263, 46:261.

I think the Does ought to be in Neverland by now.[87]
The Does ought to have been in Neverland by now.
The Does must be in Neverland now as the choppers are back.

- although this use of *ought* is epistemic and more subjective (75:127), it still contains a "deontic overtone" of desirability (1:943);

7.3.21. Had better, had best

Had better (*'d better*) or *had best* (rare) are marginal modal verbs or structures with deontic (lacking past form), yet somewhat neutral (cf. *have to*) hypothetical meaning, being synonyms for *should* and *ought* in the following uses:

- giving strong advice[88] often on how to stop "something going wrong",[89] including the underlying unpleasant consequences in case of non-fulfilment (30:82), which is why it is felt stronger than *should* or *ought to* (40:228); it is not directly linked with responsibility and hinting at consequences[90] is more relevant (30:82), often turning to a necessary (covert) order, warning or threat,[91] explaining what to do "as soon as possible" (10:67):
  You had better stay at home during the curfew. (Or you might get arrested.)
  You'd better not drink whisky. (Or you'll get to the Intensive Care Unit.)
  You'd better not have bumped into that guy.
  I'd better stay out of trouble, hadn't I?
  You should stay at home during the curfew.
  You shouldn't drink whisky.
  You ought to stay at home during the curfew.
  You ought not to drink whisky.
- an "immediate advice" may imply "condition" (15:259) as well (~ 'If I were you, I wouldn't do that.'), which may be the "wisest course of action in a particular situation" (39:39):
  You'd better stay out of this. (If you want to remain alive.)
  They'd better cross the road (before the light turns red).
- it is not a polite construction as often negative consequences are expected (37:692), and the negative form is much more menacing, expressing underlying threat, warning or urgency:
  You'd better not ask Jane anything.
  You'd better not be late for the briefing.
- an indirect suggestion derives from the interrogative form:
  Hadn't you better quit smoking?
- when used in passive voice, *had better* may be changed to *be recommended*, *be suitable*, or *be advisable* (22:332):
  It is recommended to arrive at meetings in time.
- when used in reported speech, *had better* may be changed to *advise* or *suggest*:
  Jane was advised to contact the HQ asap.
  John was suggested that he should abandon the mission at once.

[87] Uncertain personal judgement, cf. 75:128.
[88] 9:160, 15:263.
[89] 27:93, 31:93.
[90] Consequences = possible punishment or retaliation.
[91] Cf. 34:70, 41:203.

7.3.22. Dare

Dare is "extremely rare" (75:128), even if it may be a weak verb (cf. 1.5.4.4.) connected to courage or impudence. However, it is more memorable as a semi-modal verb,[92] called "the semantic black sheep of the modal auxiliary family" (19:248). Obviously, in this function it has similar meanings, even if in an elevated style:

- (lack of) courage, threat, irritation or scolding due to impudence:
  I dare not tell John that he needs a balaclava this time.
  I dare swear the Does will prevail.
  How dare you call me a chicken? (idiomatic phrase, indignation)
- past reference is also possible (*dared* or *dare* + *have* + III.), although very rare:
  I dared not tell John about the balaclava.
  No one dared tell anything to Jane either.
  The colonel daren't have replaced John for that mission.
- the interrogative form sounds may be a tentative suggestion or a modest wish:
  Dare I suggest an alternative to the itinerary?
- as it is a marginal modal, it may be preceded by a central modal (8:224):
  If I were you, I wouldn't dare challenge the colonel's authority.
  I can recommend a scary movie you shouldn't dare watch alone: Bird Box.
- *dare* may be part of a stock phrase expressing challenge, encouragement, incitement, instigation:[93]
  I dare you! (usually in children's speech, cf. 4:271)
- *dare* is also part of a formal and disappearing expression (*dare say* or *daresay*, cf. 41:133) with two major meanings, offering multiple options for translation:[94]

a) daresay as assumption, possibility or supposition:
   The Neverland mission has been a most successful one! I daresay.
b) daresay as acceptance, "as it is not relevant at the moment" (7:138), "it doesn't make any difference":[95]
   I daresay that John is very resourceful, but now he is out of ammo.

7.4. Conclusions

It is impossible to conclude the never-ending story of modality and modal verbs. We have only dealt with the modal verbs and reached the conclusion that they testify to the constant struggle of human beings to express the non-factual, subjective, perceived, unreal world, which is far larger than the factual one.

To make matters worse, we have to mention Jakobson's famous statement,[96] which clearly indicates that non-factual in one language may be completely different in another. The logical question is whether shades of modal meanings may be learnt in different languages shaped by both "human nature" and "culture" (83:7).

Should we accept Palmer's statement about modal verbs,[97] language learners would never bother trying to fully understand the lyrics of *I can't dance* by Genesis or *Should I stay or should I go?* by The Clash. Yet, the immense number of non-native speakers prove

[92] 30:25, 75:129.
[93] 7:138, 15:271, 33:150.
[94] 16:278, 33:150.
[95] 16:278, 33:150.
[96] Languages differ not in terms of what they can express, but in terms of what they must express.
[97] "… the overall picture of the modals is extremely 'messy' and untidy and that the most the linguist can do is impose some order, point out some regularities, correspondences, parallelisms. But there is no single simple solution…" (30:49).

that Palmer's definition is a rather perfectionist one, and misunderstandings are natural in the case of overlapping multiple modal meanings.

Although the theory of modal verbs is rather complex, involving:

- form (affirmative, interrogative, negative);
- word order (emphasis), inherent meanings (deontic, epistemic, dynamic, etc.);
- the speaker's attitude (certainty, irony, etc.),

The greatest problem is seemingly the enlarged **context** (full sentences, cf. 28:137), in which modal verb meanings are best understood (28:19), embedded in various grammatical categories (tenses, conditionals, hypothetical, passive voice, reported speech).

The fact that modal verbs are mentioned in all of them signals how arbitrary categorisation may be (cf. 28:35) serving different purposes; we considered it important to differentiate them from other verbs (and not to include them among the irregular verbs), then various chapters were discussed with separate sections regarding modal verbs; yet a separate chapter was dedicated to them.

Although they are vital for effective language use, the theories and descriptions about modal verbs are not a readily available option for language learners. Depending on the level, primary semantic meanings should be favoured first, possibly contrasting deontic and epistemic meanings for each modal verb, if we accept that they express both meanings (cf. 46:206):

> *You must not play with fire.* (deontic)
> *You must be crazy*. (epistemic)
> *We should get there by noon.*
> (epistemic with a deontic overtone of desirability, cf. 1:932)

Interpreting the difference is possible if the entire sentence meaning is looked for, which clearly indicates that neither factual nor temporal readings help (75:52). More than that, when two languages are compared through translation, the situation completely changes, as there are two opposing views: "meanings cannot be transferred at all from one language to another" and "meanings can be fully transferred" (83:6). Of course, these views can hardly stop translators and interpreters from doing their job:

> Had translation depended for its survival on theory, it would have died out long before Cicero." (84:219)

We should also add, that real knowledge of language is best tested when translating from mother tongue to another one. In the case of modal verbs suitable contexts should be provided "in the hope that the learner will create the association between the target language modal-value and the source language meaning of his own accord" (28:9), not forgetting the proper social context (social relations between participants, their status, cf. 28:13, 18), as *can*, *should* or *must* have special meanings in cookbooks, offering advice or over-polite invitations (77:311–312).

This is why speakers need a 'full set of world knowledge' to understand particular uses even if misinterpretations may still appear. After all, modality is an issue involving not only linguistics but philosophy and psychology as well (28:13). It may happen that a certain decline of modal verb use is recorded,[98] such as in the case of *may*, *must* or *shall*, but once modality expresses speakers' attitudes and judgements, further options have still to be considered, which are outside the range of the present book.

[98] Cf. http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/verb-phrase/modalfindings.htm, 26. 02. 2017.

Yet we would like to offer a selected list of modal concepts, which proves that modality pervades human communication to such extent that it cannot be avoided:

Word cloud 18. Communication and modality

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1:932–945
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3:136–178
4:209–288
5:176–191
7:127–138, 184, 301
8:179–226
9:138–169
10:47–52, 67
11:307, 312, 383–444
12:69, 116–141
13:300, 360–362
14:23, 59–67
15:197–282
16:66, 250–278
17:152–160
19:248
22:287–291, 307–346
25:145
26:65–77
27:92–104
28:1–276
29:87, 99–100, 784
30:1–207
31:92–104
32:65–77
33:116, 128–152, 258–259
34: 52–73, 128
35:34–51, 200
36:135–148, 219–239, 816, 1011, 1183
37:637–713
38:128–155
39:17–51, 95
40:183, 201–240
41:96–102, 133, 203, 237–239, 333–344, 375–376, 410–413, 509–513, 616–618
42:63–67, 109–111, 119, 223–228
43:106–129
44:136–161, 175
45:174–199
46:80–81, 260–266, 274
47:94–110
49:68–69
51:127–153
52:53–59
54:180, 189
58:107–128
59:1–68
65:106, 178
67:153–156
72:142-150
73:165
74:213–217
75:26, 29, 44–52, 70–74, 99, 102–106, 112–129, 138, 143–145, 156
76:34–46, 153
77:275–313
79:22–25, 204–298
80:5
81:6, 55
82:59–68
83:6–7
84:219
85:41
87:188, 996
88:218–256
89:104–107
90:61
99:97–131

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8. CONCLUSIONS

The immense importance of verb in creating meaningful sentences is known in all grammars. Our intention was to show how much logic is encoded in communication in English when both factual and non-factual things are mentioned.

The system started with **verbs**, highlighting their form and function (verb system), which served as building blocks to formulate sentences, where these verbs (either alone or combined) are used to create **tenses**.

The English tense system is specific, combining aspects and time, resulting in 12 tenses. However, they form a logical continuum, even if we have to add *going to future* as a viable construction to be used as a tense. The richness of future reference was presented by various other constructions as well, driving our attention towards modality.

Without making it explicit, almost all cases referring to these tenses were exemplified in the most frequent **mood**, because a separate chapter was dedicated to other moods as well, foreshadowing the importance of expressing non-factual things.

It is our firm belief that once we understand the tense system, we can instantly grasp the meaning of **Passive Voice** (where certain *be* forms complete the tense form), **conditional** and **hypothetical** structures (where meaning of tenses is changed due to the combination of specific words, such as *if, wish* or *would* with the tense forms). At this stage we could experience how **meaning** and **form** depends on word order, taking about an analytic language, using little inflection.

According to many scholars, the most intricate part of English may be associated with **modality**, and this is mostly exemplified with **modal verbs**. However, first we presented **concepts** connected to modality, and while describing modal verbs, we also mentioned that other words (e.g. nouns or adjectives) or constructions (e.g. hedges) can perfectly express subjective / non-factual ideas, and how important they might be in expressing degrees of politeness.

We are well aware that our approach to English grammar is as subjective as any other approach (once we try to 'interpret' or 'explain' things, factuality tends to disappear), but we tend to think that these seven chapters form a system we had the courage to refer to as **logical**. Hence we tried to present this material with the help of theoretical support, examples, illustrations, tables and word clouds, hoping that we could make the readers see how intertwined these chapters are, and however painstakingly we wanted to present one aspect of the system, other components constantly emerged. To mention but two, one of them is modality, while the other one is **reported speech**. Although we mentioned throughout the book that the latter belongs to syntax, many reported speech examples had to be given to prove the validity of certain rules (e.g. tenses or modal verbs).

This also cast light on another feature of approaching grammar: we cannot help categorising things, including grammar. Yet, we are mostly faced with fuzziness, at least, as it might prove difficult to separate lexicology, morphology, semantics, syntax and pragmatics when certain issues are discussed. It might well be that the only reason we still create subjective categories is to enable us focus on certain aspects, but the vast richness of any language cannot fit into one book. Even if we know that subsequent volumes should deal with the noun phrase (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals) and further categories (prepositions, conjunctions), they will ultimately signal further needs, such as the infinitive (borderline between verbs and nouns) or syntax (conjunctions as links between clauses).

However, we could not describe these seven chapters without mentioning the **infinitive, participle** and **gerund**, let alone the **clauses** when discussing the **Subjunctive Mood** or **conditionals**.

Now let us combine the 7 chapters through examples:

1. Verbs and tenses:
   Jane is drinking a cosmo.
2. Tense and PV:
   A cosmo is being drunk by Jane.
3. Tense, PV and conditional:
   If a cosmo were being drunk by Jane, John would be slurping a piña colada.
4. Tense, PV and hypothetical:
   If only a piña colada would be brought me by Chris Hemsworth.
5. Tense, PV, conditional and modal:
   If a cosmo were being drunk by Jane, John might be slurping a piña colada.
6. Tense, PV, conditional, modal combined with reported speech:
   At Shrek's housewarming party the colonel imagined that if John's piña colada were being drunk by Jane, John might be slurping her cosmo instead.

Illustration 51. Conclusions

To sum up, we believe that a linear description of English grammar requires further chapters to be added to the present ones, and we would like to provide them as well. Nevertheless, we strongly doubt that the sequel may still be referred to as **logical**. While books published by native speakers describe nouns, adjectives, etc. from a typically monolingual perspective ('as is'), non-native authors may highlight specific issues from a bilingual perspective, highlighting typical mistakes often stemming from false analogies between native language and English.

9. APPENDIX

9.1. List of 150 Irregular Verbs

	I.	II.	III.	Possible translation
	be (am, are, is)	*was, were*	*been*	
	bear	*bore*	*born(e)*	
	beat	*beat*	*beaten*	
	become	*became*	*become*	
	begin	*began*	*begun*	
	bend	*bent*	*bent*	
	bet	*bet*	*bet*	
	bind	*bound*	*bound*	
	bite	*bit*	*bitten*	
	bleed	*bled*	*bled*	
	blow	*blew*	*blown*	
	break	*broke*	*broken*	
	bring	*brought*	*brought*	
	broadcast	*broadcast*	*broadcast*	
	build	*built*	*built*	
	burn	*burnt*	*burnt*	
	burst	*burst*	*burst*	
	buy	*bought*	*bought*	
	cast	*cast*	*cast*	
	catch	*caught*	*caught*	
	choose	*chose*	*chosen*	
	come	*came*	*come*	
	cost	*cost*	*cost*	
	creep	*crept*	*crept*	
	cut	*cut*	*cut*	
	deal	*dealt*	*dealt*	
	dig	*dug*	*dug*	
	do	*did*	*done*	
	draw	*drew*	*drawn*	
	dream	*dreamt*	*dreamt*	
	drink	*drank*	*drunk*	
	drive	*drove*	*driven*	
	eat	*ate*	*eaten*	
	fall	*fell*	*fallen*	
	feed	*fed*	*fed*	
	feel	*felt*	*felt*	
	fight	*fought*	*fought*	
	find	*found*	*found*	
	fit	*fit*	*fit*	
	fling	*flung*	*flung*	
	fly	*flew*	*flown*	
	forbid	*forbad(e)*	*forbid(den)*	

	I.	II.	III.	Possible translation
	forecast	*forecast*	*forecast*	
	forget	*forgot*	*forgotten*	
	forgive	*forgave*	*forgiven*	
	freeze	*froze*	*frozen*	
	get	*got*	*got (gotten US)*	
	give	*gave*	*given*	
	go	*went*	*gone, been*	
	grind	*ground*	*ground*	
	grow	*grew*	*grown*	
	hang	*hung*	*hung*	
	have / has	*had*	*had*	
	hear	*heard*	*heard*	
	hide	*hid*	*hidden*	
	hit	*hit*	*hit*	
	hold	*held*	*held*	
	hurt	*hurt*	*hurt*	
	keep	*kept*	*kept*	
	kneel	*knelt*	*knelt*	
	knit	*knit*	*knit*	
	know	*knew*	*known*	
	lay	*laid*	*laid*	
	lead	*led*	*led*	
	lean	*leant*	*leant*	
	leap	*leapt*	*leapt*	
	learn	*learnt*	*learnt*	
	leave	*left*	*left*	
	lend	*lent*	*lent*	
	let	*let*	*let*	
	lie	*lay*	*lain*	
	light	*lit*	*lit*	
	lose	*lost*	*lost*	
	make	*made*	*made*	
	mean	*meant*	*meant*	
	meet	*met*	*met*	
	mislead	*misled*	*misled*	
	mistake	*mistook*	*mistaken*	
	mow	*mowed*	*mown*	
	pay	*paid*	*paid*	
	put	*put*	*put*	
	quit	*quit*	*quit*	
	read	*read*	*read*	
	ride	*rode*	*ridden*	
	ring	*rang*	*rung*	
	rise	*rose*	*risen*	
	run	*ran*	*run*	
	say (sg to sy)	*said*	*said*	
	see	*saw*	*seen*	

	I.	**II.**	**III.**	**Possible translation**
	sell	*sold*	*sold*	
	send	*sent*	*sent*	
	set	*set*	*set*	
	shake	*shook*	*shaken*	
	shed	*shed*	*shed*	
	shine	*shone*	*shone*	
	shoot	*shot*	*shot*	
	show	*showed*	*shown*	
	shrink	*shrank (shrunk)*	*shrunk(en)*	
	shut	*shut*	*shut*	
	sing	*sang*	*sung*	
	sink	*sank*	*sunk(en)*	
	sit	*sat*	*sat*	
	sleep	*slept*	*slept*	
	slide	*slid*	*slid(den)*	
	slit	*slit*	*slit*	
	smell	*smelt*	*smelt*	
	speak	*spoke*	*spoken*	
	speed	*sped*	*sped*	
	spell	*spelt*	*spelt*	
	spend	*spent*	*spent*	
	spill	*spilt*	*spilt*	
	spin	*spun (span †)*	*spun*	
	spit	*spat (spit US)*	*spat (spit US)*	
	split	*split*	*split*	
	spoil	*spoilt*	*spoilt*	
	spread	*spread*	*spread*	
	spring	*sprang*	*sprung*	
	stand	*stood*	*stood*	
	steal	*stole*	*stolen*	
	stick	*stuck*	*stuck*	
	sting	*stung*	*stung*	
	stink	*stank, stunk*	*stunk*	
	strike	*struck*	*struck*	
	strive	*strove*	*striven*	
	swear	*swore*	*sworn*	
	sweep	*swept*	*swept*	
	swell	*swelled*	*swollen*	
	swim	*swam*	*swum*	
	swing	*swung*	*swung*	
	take	*took*	*taken*	
	teach	*taught*	*taught*	
	tear	*tore*	*torn*	
	tell (sy sg)	*told*	*told*	
	think	*thought*	*thought*	
	throw	*threw*	*thrown*	
	thrust	*thrust*	*thrust*	

	I.	II.	III.	Possible translation
	undergo	*underwent*	*undergone*	
	understand	*understood*	*understood*	
	undo	*undid*	*undone*	
	upset	*upset*	*upset*	
	wake	*woke*	*woken*	
	wear	*wore*	*worn*	
	weave	*wove*	*wove(n)*	
	weep	*wept*	*wept*	
	wet	*wet*	*wet*	
	win	*won*	*won*	
	wind	*wound*	*wound*	
	withdraw	*withdrew*	*withdrawn*	
	wring	*wrung*	*wrung*	
	write	*wrote*	*written*	

9.2. List of 680 Irregular Verbs

The first column marks the importance (Imp.) of the irregular verb regarding its frequency.

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		abide ®	abode †	abode †		
B		aby(e)	abought	abought		
B		alight ®	alit	alit		
B		arise	arose	arisen	75	
B		awake ®	awoke	awoken		
B		babysit	babysat	babysat		
B		backbite	backbit(ten)	backbit(ten)		
B		backfit	backfit	backfit		
B		backlight	backlit	backlit		
B		backslide	backslid	backslid(den)		
A	G3EN	be (am, are, is)	was, were	been	1	
A	G3N	bear	bore	born / borne	63	
A	G2EN	beat	beat	beaten	80	
A	G2^	become	became	become	16	
B		bedight ®	bedight	bedight		
B		befall	befell	befallen		
B		beget	begot	begot(ten)		
A	G3IAU	begin	began	begun	22	
B		begird	begirt, begirded	begirt		
B		behight	behight	behight behoten		
B		behold	beheld	beheld beholden †		
B		belay ®	belaid	belaid		
A	G2T	bend ®	bent	bent	88	
B		benim ®	benam	benome(n) benumb		
B		bereave ® (of)	bereaved bereft (of)	bereaved bereft (of)		
B		besee ®	besaw	beseen		
B		beseech ® †	besought	besought	155	
B		beset	beset	beset		
B		beshine ®	beshone	beshone		
B		bespeak	bespoke	bespoken		
B		bespread ®	bespread	bespread		
B		bestrew	bestrewed	bestrewed bestrewn		
B		bestride	bestrode	bestrid(den) bestrode		
A	G1®	bet ®	bet	bet	132	
B		betake	betook	betaken		
B		bethink	bethought	bethought		
B		beweep	bewept	bewept		
B		bid (command)	bade	bidden	139	
B	G1	bid (offer)	bid	bid		
B		bide ®	bode	bided		
A	G2D	bind	bound	bound	82	
A	G3EN	bite	bit	bitten	121	
B		blaw	blawed	blawn		
A	G2D	bleed	bled	bled	136	
B		blend ®	blent (lit.)	blent (lit.)		
B		bless ®	blest	blest		
A	G3WN	blow	blew	blown	86	

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		bottle-feed	bottle-fed	bottle-fed		
B		bowstring	Bowstrung bow-stringed	bowstrung		
A	G3EN	break	broke	broken	46	
B		breast-feed	breast-fed	breast-fed		
B	G2D	breed	bred	bred	138	
A	G2GHT	bring	brought	brought	21	
A	G1®	broadcast ®	broadcast	broadcast		
B		browbeat	browbeat	browbeat(en)		
A	G2T	build	built	built	43	
A	G2T®	burn ®	burnt	burnt		
A	G1	burst	burst	burst	104	
B		bust ®	bust	bust		
A	G2GHT	buy	bought	bought	51	
A	G1	cast	cast	cast	83	
A	G2GHT	catch	caught	caught	56	
B		cheerlead	cheerled	cheerled		
B		chide ®	chid	chid(den)		
A	G3EN	choose	chose	chosen	53	
B		clap ®	clapt	clapt		
B		clear-cut	clear-cut	clear-cut		
B		cleave ®	clove / cleft	clove / cleft		
B		cling	clung	clung	112	
B		clothe ®	clad †	clad †		
B		colorbreed	colorbred	colorbred		
B		colorcast	colorcast	colorcast		
A	G2^	come	came	come	8	
A	G1®	cost ®	cost	cost	79	
B		cost-cut	cost-cut	cost-cut		
B		counterdraw	counterdrew	counterdrawn		
B		counterlight	counterlit	counterlit		
B		countersink	countersank	countersunk		
B		cowrite	cowrote	cowritten		
B		crash-dive	crash-dived crash-dove	crash-dived		
A	G2T	creep	crept	crept	120	
B		creep-feed	creep-fed	creep-fed		
B		crib-bite	crib-bit	crib-bitten		
B		cross-bite	cross-bit	cross-bitten		
B		cross-string	cross-strung	cross-strung		
B		crossbreed	crossbred	crossbred		
B		crosscut	crosscut	crosscut		
B		crosslight	crosslit	crosslit		
B		crow ®	crow crew †	crowed		
A	G1	cut	cut	cut	48	
B		daydream ®	daydreamt	daydreamt		
A	G2T	deal	dealt	dealt	57	
B		deepfreeze ®	deepfroze	deepfroze		
A	G2iUU	dig	dug	dug	107	
B		dight ®	dight	dight		
B		dispread	dispread	dispread		
B		disprove ®	disproved	disproven		
B		dive ®	dived dove (AE)	dived		
A	G3EN	do	did	done	3	
B		dogfight	dogfought	dogfought		
B		dow ®	dought	dought		
B		drag ®	drug	drug		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
A	G3WN	draw	drew	drawn	45	
A	G2T®	dream ®	dreamt	dreamt		
A	G3IAU	drink	drank	drunk	73	
B		drip-feed	drip-fed	drip-fed		
A	G3EN	drive	drove	driven	50	
B		dwell ® †	dwelt	dwelt	128	
A	G3EN	eat	ate	eaten	65	
B		end-run	end-ran	end-run		
B		engird	engirt	engirt		
B		engrave ®	engraved	engraven		
B		enwind	enwound	enwound		
A	G3EN	fall	fell	fallen	41	
B		farebeat	farebeat	farebeaten		
B		fast-cut	fast-cut	fast-cut		
A	G2D	feed	fed	fed	71	
A	G2T	feel	felt	felt	19	
A	G2GHT	fight	fought	fought	62	
A	G2D	find	found	found	13	
A	G1®	fit ®	fit	fit		
B		flash-freeze	flash-froze	flash-frozen		
B		flee	fled	fled	116	
A	G2iUU	fling	flung	flung	122	
B		floodlight	floodlit	floodlit		
A	G3WN	fly	flew	flown	76	
B		flyblow	flyblew	flyblown		
B		forbear	forbore	forborne		
A	G3EN	forbid	forbad(e)	forbid(den)	110	
B		force-feed	force-fed	force-fed		
B		fordo	fordid	fordone		
A	G1®	forecast ®	forecast	forecast		
B		forefeel	forefelt	forefelt		
B		forego	forewent	foregone		
B		foreknow	foreknew	foreknown		
B		forelay	forelaid	forelaid		
B		forelie	forlay	forlain		
B		forerun	foreran	forerun		
B		foresee	foresaw	foreseen		
B		foreshow ®	foreshowed	foreshown		
B		forespeak	forespoke	forespoken		
B		foretell	foretold	foretold		
A	G3EN	forget	forgot	forgotten	59	
A	G3EN	forgive	forgave	forgiven	115	
B		forgo	forwent	forgone		
B		forlay	forlaid	forlaid		
B		forleave	forleft	forleft forlaft		
B		forlend	forlent	forlent		
B		forlese	forlore	forlorn		
B		forlet	forlet	forlet		
B		forsake	forsook	forsaken	153	
B		forsay ®	forsaid	forsaid		
B		forspeak ®	forspoke	forspoken		
B		forspend ®	forspent	forspent		
B		forswear	forswore	forsworn		
B		fraught ®	fraught	fraught		
B		free-fall	free-fell	free-fallen		
A	G3EN	freeze	froze	frozen	101	
B		frostbite	frostbit	frostbitten		
B		gainsay ®	gainsaid	gainsaid		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		gaslight ®	gaslit	gaslit		
B		geld ®	gelt	gelt		
A	G2T	get	got	got gotten (AE)	11	
B		ghostwrite	ghostwrote	ghostwritten		
B		gild ®	gilt	gilt		
B		gin	gan	gan		
B		gird ®	girt	girt		
A	G3EN	give	gave	given	12	
B		gnaw ®	gnawed	gnawn		
A	G3EN	go	went	gone, been	6	
B		grave ®	graved	graven		
A	G2D	grind	ground	ground	123	
A	G3WN	grow	grew	grown	39	
B		hagride	hagrode	hagridden		
B		halterbreak	halterbroke	halterbroken		
B		hamstring ®	hamstrung	hamstrung		
B		hand-feed	hand-fed	hand-fed		
B		hand-ride	hand-rode	hand-ridden		
B		handsew ®	handsewed	handsewn		
B		handwrite	handwrote	handwritten		
A	G2iUU	hang	hung / hanged	hung / hanged	68	
A	G2D	have (has)	had	had	2	
A	G2D	hear	heard	heard	27	
B		heave ®	hove	hove		
B		hew ®	hewed	hewn	158	
A	G3EN	hide	hid	hidden	84	
B		hight	hote, hight	hoten		
A	G1	hit	hit	hit	74	
B		hoise ®	hoist	hoist		
A	G2D	hold	held	held	24	
B		house-sit	house-sat	house-sat		
B		housebreak	housebroke	housebroken		
A	G1	hurt	hurt	hurt	96	
B		inbreed ®	inbred	inbred		
B		indwell	indwelt	indwelt		
B		inhold	inheld	inheld		
B		inlay	inlaid	inlaid		
B		input ®	input	input		
B		inset	inset	inset		
B		interblend ®	interblent	interblent		
B		interbreed	interbred	interbred		
B		intercut	intercut	intercut		
B		intergrave ®	intergraved	intergraven		
B		interlay	interlaid	interlaid		
B		interset	interset	interset		
B		interweave	interwove	interwoven		
B		interwind	interwound	interwound		
B		inweave ®	inwove	inwoven		
B		inwind	inwound	inwound		
B		jerry-build	jerry-built	jerry-built		
A	G2T	keep	kept	kept	23	
B		ken ®	kent	kenned		
A	G2T®	kneel ®	knelt	knelt	126	
A	G1®	knit ®	knit	knit		
A	G3WN	know	knew	known	10	
B		lade ®	laded	laden		
B		landslide ®	landslid	landslid		
A	G2D	lay	laid	laid	60	

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
A	G2D	lead	led	led	37	
A	G2T®	lean ®	leant	leant		
A	G2T®	leap ®	leapt	leapt		
A	G2T®	learn ®	learnt	learnt		
A	G2T	leave	left	left	18	
A	G2T	lend	lent	lent	98	
A	G1	let	let	let	28	
A	G3N	lie	lay	lain	36	
A	G2T®	light ®	lit	lit	81	
B		linebreed	linebred	linebred		
B		lip-read	lip-read	lip-read		
A	G2T	lose	lost	lost	40	
A	G2D	make	made	made	5	
A	G2T	mean	meant	meant	29	
A	G2T	meet	met	met	31	
B		melt ®	molt	molten †		
B		misbear ®	misbore	misborne		
B		misbecome	misbecame	misbecome		
B		misbeget	misbegot	misbegot(ten)		
B		miscast	miscast	miscast		
B		mischoose	mischose	mischosen		
B		miscut	miscut	miscut		
B		misdeal	misdealt	misdealt		
B		misdo	misdid	misdone		
B		misfall	misfell	misfallen		
B		misfeed	misfed	misfed		
B		misget	misgot	misgotten		
B		misgive	misgave	misgiven		
B		mishear	misheard	misheard		
B		mishit	mishit	mishit		
B		miskeep	miskept	miskept		
B		misken ®	miskent	miskent		
B		misknow	misknew	misknown		
B		mislay	mislaid	mislaid		
A	G2D	mislead	misled	misled		
B		mislearn ®	mislearnt	mislearnt		
B		misread	misread	misread		
B		missay	missaid	missaid		
B		missend	missent	missent		
B		misset	misset	misset		
B		misshape ®	misshaped	misshapen		
B		misspeak	misspoke	misspoken		
B		misspell ®	misspelt	misspelt		
B		misspend	misspent	misspent		
B		misswear	misswore	missworn		
A	G3EN	mistake	mistook	mistaken	119	
B		misteach	mistaught	mistaught		
B		mistell	mistold	mistold		
B		misthink	misthought	misthought		
B		misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood		
B		miswear	misswore	misworn		
B		miswed ®	miswed	miswed		
B		miswrite	miswrote	miswritten		
B		miswrite	miswrote	miswritten		
B		moonlight	moonlit	moonlit		
A	G3WN	mow ®	mowed	mown		
B		naysay ®	naysaid	naysaid		
B		nim ®	nam	nome(n) numb		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		nose-dive ®	nose-dove	nose-dove		
B		offset	offset	offset		
B		outbid	outbid	outbid(den)		
B		outbreed	outbred	outbred		
B		outdo	outdid	outdone		
B		outdraw	outdrew	outdrawn		
B		outdrink	outdrank	outdrunk		
B		outdrive	outdrove	outdriven		
B		outfight	outfought	outfought		
B		outfly	outflew	outflown		
B		outgo	outwent	outgone		
B		outgrow	outgrew	outgrown		
B		outlay	outlaid	outlaid		
B		outleap ®	outleapt	outleapt		
B		output ®	output	output		
B		outride	outrode	outridden		
B		outrun	outran	outrun		
B		outsee	outsaw	outseen		
B		outsell	outsold	outsold		
B		outshine	outshone	outshone		
B		outshoot	outshot	outshot		
B		outsing	outsang	outsung		
B		outsit	outsat	outsat		
B		outsleep	outslept	outslept		
B		outsmell ®	outsmelt	outsmelt		
B		outspeak	outspoke	outspoken		
B		outspeed	outsped	outsped		
B		outspend	outspent	outspent		
B		outspin	outspun	outspun		
B		outspread	outspread	outspread		
B		outspring	outsprang	outsprung		
B		outstand	outstood	outstood		
B		outswear	outswore	outsworn		
B		outswim	outswam	outswum		
B		outtell	outtold	outtold		
B		outthink	outthought	outthought		
B		outthrow	outthrew	outthrown		
B		outthrust	outthrust	outthrust		
B		outwear	outwore	outworn		
B		outwind	outwound	outwound		
B		outwork ®	outwrought	outwrought		
B		outwrite	outwrote	outwritten		
B		overbear	overbore	overborne		
B		overbend	overbent	overbent		
B		overbid	overbid	overbid		
B		overblow	overblew	overblown		
B		overbreed	overbred	overbred		
B		overbuild	overbuilt	overbuilt		
B		overbuy	overbought	overbought		
B		overcast	overcast	overcast		
B		overcome	overcame	overcome	100	
B		overcut	overcut	overcut		
B		overdo	overdid	overdone		
B		overdraw	overdrew	overdrawn		
B		overdrink	overdrank	overdrunk		
B		overdrive	overdrove	overdriven		
B		overeat	overate	overeaten		
B		overfeed	overfed	overfed		
B		overfly	overflew	overflown		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		overgrow	overgrew	overgrown		
B		overhang ®	overhung	overhung		
B		overhear	overheard	overheard		
B		overlade	overladed	overladen		
B		overlay	overlaid	overlaid		
B		overleap ®	overleapt	overleapt		
B		overlearn ®	overlearnt	overlearnt		
B		overlie	overlay	overlain		
B		overpass ®	overpast	overpast		
B		overpay	overpaid	overpaid		
B		override	overrode	overridden		
B		overrun	overran	overrun		
B		oversee	oversaw	overseen		
B		oversell	oversold	oversold		
B		overset	overset	overset		
B		oversew ®	oversewed	oversewn		
B		overshake	overshook	overshaken		
B		overshine ®	overshone	overshone		
B		overshoot	overshot	overshot		
B		oversleep	overslept	overslept		
B		overslide	overslid	overslid(den)		
B		overslip ®	overslipt	overslipt		
B		oversow ®	oversowed	oversown		
B		overspeak	overspoke	overspoken		
B		overspend	overspent	overspent		
B		overspill ®	overspilt	overspilt		
B		overspin	overspun	overspun		
B		overspread	overspread	overspread		
B		overspring	oversprang	oversprung		
B		overstand	overstood	overstood		
B		overstrew ®	overstrewed	overstrewn		
B		overstride	overstrode	overstridden		
B		overstrike	overstruck	overstruck		
B		overstring	overstrung	overstrung		
B		overswing	overswung	overswung		
B		overtake	overtook	overtaken		
B		overthink	overthought	overthought		
B		overthrow	overthrew	overthrown		
B		overwear	overwore	overworn		
B		overwind	overwound	overwound		
B		overwithhold	overwithheld	overwithheld		
B		overwork ®	overworked	overwrought		
B		overwrite	overwrote	overwritten		
B		partake	partook	partaken		
A	G2D	pay	paid	paid	33	
B		pen ®	pent	pent		
B		pinch-hit	pinch-hit	pinch-hit		
B		plead ®	pled	pled		
B		podcast	podcast	podcast		
B		potshot	potshot potshotted	potshot		
B		practice-teach	practice-taught	practice-taught		
B		prebind	prebound	prebound		
B		prebuild	prebuilt	prebuilt		
B		precut	precut	precut		
B		predo	predid	predone		
B		premake	premade	premade		
B		prepay	prepaid	prepaid		
B		presell	presold	presold		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		preset	preset	preset		
B		preshrink	preshrank	preshrunk		
B		presplit	presplit	presplit		
B		price-cut	price-cut	price-cut		
B		proofread	proofread	proofread		
B		prove ®	proved	proved proven (AE)		
A	G1	put	put	put	20	
B		queath ®	quethe quoth	quoth quethen		
B		quick-freeze	quick-froze	quick-frozen		
A	G1®	quit ®	quit	quit	129	
B		rap ®	rapt	rapt		
B		re-prove ®	re-proved	re-proven		
A	G2D	read	read	read	38	
B		reave ®	reft	reft		
B		reawake	reawoke	reawaken reawaken		
B		rebid	rebid	rebid		
B		rebind	rebound	rebound		
B		rebroadcast	rebroadcast	rebroadcast		
B		rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt		
B		recast	recast	recast		
B		recut	recut	recut		
B		redeal	redealt	redealt		
B		redo	redid	redone		
B		redraw	redrew	redrawn		
B		reeve ®	rove	rove		
B		refit	refit	refit		
B		regrind	reground	reground		
B		regrow	regrew	regrown		
B		rehang	rehung	rehung		
B		rehear	reheard	reheard		
B		reknit ®	reknit	reknit		
B		relay	relaid	relaid		
B		relearn ®	relearnt	relearnt		
B		relight ®	relit	relit		
B		remake	remade	remade		
B		rend	rent	rent	157	
B		repay	repaid	repaid		
B		reread	reread	reread		
B		rerun	reran	rerun		
B		resell	resold	resold		
B		resend	resent	resent		
B		reset	reset	reset		
B		resew ®	resewed	resewn		
B		reshoot	reshot	reshot		
B		resit (exam)	resat	resat		
B		resow	resowed	resown		
B		respell ®	respelt	respelt		
B		restring	restrung	restrung		
B		retake (exam)	retook	retaken		
B		reteach	retaught	retaught		
B		retear	retore	retorn		
B		retell	retold	retold		
B		rethink	rethought	rethought		
B		retread	retrod	retrod(den)		
B		retrofit ®	retrofit	retrofit		
B		rewake ®	rewoke	rewoken		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		rewear	rewore	reworn		
B		reweave ®	rewove	rewoven		
B		rewed ®	rewed	rewed		
B		rewet ®	rewet	rewet		
B		rewin	rewon	rewon		
B		rewind	rewound	rewound		
B		rewrite	rewrote	rewritten		
B		rid ®	rid	rid	146	
A	G3EN	ride	rode	ridden	70	
A	G3IAU	ring	rang	rung	97	
A	G3EN	rise	rose	risen	49	
B		rive ®	rived	riven		
B		rough-hew	rough-hewed	rough-hewn		
B		roughcast	roughcast	roughcast		
A	G2^	run	ran	run	32	
B		sake ®	sook	saken		
B		sand-cast	sand-cast	sand-cast		
B		saw ®	sawed	sawn	143	
A	G2D	say (sg to sy)	said	said	4	
A	G3EN	see	saw	seen	9	
B		seek	sought	sought	54	
B		seethe ®	sod	sod(den)		
B		self-feed	self-fed	self-fed		
B		self-sow ®	self-sowed	self-sown		
A	G2D	sell	sold	sold	61	
A	G2T	send	sent	sent	42	
A	G1	set	set	set	30	
B		sew ®	sewed	sewn	137	
A	G3EN	shake	shook	shaken	69	
B		shape ®	shope	shapen		
B		shave ®	shaved	shaven		
B		shear ®	sheared	shorn	150	
A	G1®	shed ®	shed	shed	133	
B		shend	shent	shent		
B		shew ® †	shewed	shewn		
A	G2X	shine ®	shone	shone	102	
B		shit ®	shat (shit)	shat (shit)		
B		shoe ®	shod	shod	154	
A	G2T	shoot	shot	shot	72	
B		shortcut	shortcut	shortcut		
A	G3WN	show	showed	shown	17	
B		shred ®	shred	shred		
A	G3IAU	shrink	shrank (shrunk)	shrunk(en)	134	
B		shrive ® †	shrove	shriven		
A	G1	shut	shut	shut	93	
B		sidewind	sidewound	sidewound		
B		sight-read	sight-read	sight-read		
B		sightread	sightread	sightread		
B		sightsee	sightsaw	sightseen		
B		simulcast	simulcast	simulcast		
A	G3IAU	sing	sang	sung	66	
A	G3IAU	sink	sank	sunk(en)	99	
A	G2T	sit	sat	sat	34	
B		skywrite	skywrote	skywritten		
B		slay ®	slew	slain	159	
A	G2T	sleep	slept	slept	78	
A	G2D	slide	slid	slid(den)	105	
B		sling	slung	slung	148	
B		slink	slunk	slunk	160	

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		slip ®	slipt	slipt		
A	G1	slit	slit	slit	149	
A	G2T®	smell ®	smelt	smelt		
B		smite †	smote	smitten	156	
B	G2T	snapshoot	snapshot	snapshot		
B		sneak ®	snuck	snuck		
B		soothsay	soothsaid	soothsaid		
B		sow ®	sowed	sown	140	
A	G3EN	speak	spoke	spoken	35	
A	G2D®	speed ®	sped	sped	124	
A	G2T®	spell ®	spelt	spelt		
B		spellbind	spellbound	spellbound		
A	G2T	spend	spent	spent	47	
A	G2T®	spill ®	spilt	spilt		
A	G2iUU	spin	spun span †	spun	117	
A	G2T	spit	spat spit (AE)	spat spit (AE)	130	
A	G1	split	split	split	111	
A	G2T®	spoil ®	spoilt	spoilt		
B		spoonfeed	spoonfed	spoonfed		
B		spotlight ®	spotlit	spotlit		
A	G1	spread	spread	spread	77	
A	G3IAU	spring	sprang	sprung	106	
B		stall-feed	stall-fed	stall-fed		
A	G2D	stand	stood	stood	26	
B		stave ®	stove	stove		
A	G3EN	steal	stole	stolen	94	
A	G2iUU	stick	stuck	stuck	90	
A	G2iUU	sting	stung	stung	145	
A	G3IAU	stink	stank stunk	stunk	151	
B		straphang	straphung	straphung		
B		strew ®	strewed	strewn	147	
B		stride ®	strode	strid(den) strode	131	
A	G2iUU	strike	struck	struck stricken	67	
B		string	strung	strung	144	
B		strip ®	stript	stript		
A	G3EN	strive ®	strove	striven	118	
B		sublet	sublet	sublet		
B		sunburn ®	sunburnt	sunburnt		
B		surfride	surfrode	surfridden		
A	G3N	swear	swore	sworn	108	
B		sweat ®	sweat	sweat		
A	G2T	sweep	swept	swept	91	
A	G3EN	swell ®	swelled	swollen	135	
B		swelt ®	swolt	swolten		
A	G3IAU	swim	swam	swum	87	
A	G2iUU	swing	swung	swung	85	
B		swink	swank swonk	swonken		
B		switch-hit	switch-hit	switch-hit		
A	G3EN	take	took	taken	7	
A	G2GHT	teach	taught	taught	64	
B		team-teach	team-taught	team-taught		
A	G3N	tear	tore	torn	95	
B		telecast ®	telecast	telecast		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
A	G2D	tell (sy sg)	told	told	15	
B		test-drive	test-drove	test-driven		
B		test-fly	test-flew	test-flown		
A	G2GHT	think	thought	thought	14	
B		thrive ®	throve	thriven †		
A	G3WN	throw	threw	thrown	55	
A	G1	thrust	thrust	thrust	109	
B		thunderstrike	thunderstruck	thunderstruck thunderstricken		
B		tine ®	tint	tint		
B		toss ®	tost	tost		
B		tread	trod	trod(den)	141	
B		troubleshoot	troubleshot	troubleshot		
B		typecast	typecast	typecast		
B		typeset	typeset	typeset		
B		typewrite	typewrote	typewritten		
B		unbear	unbore	unborn(e)		
B		unbend	unbent	unbent		
B		unbind	unbound	unbound		
B		unbuild	unbuilt	unbuilt		
B		unclothe ®	unclad	unclad		
B		underbear	underbore	underborne		
B		underbid	underbid	underbid(den)		
B		underbind	underbound	underbound		
B		underbuy	underbought	underbought		
B		undercast	undercast	undercast		
B		undercut	undercut	undercut		
B		underdelve ®	underdelved	underdolven		
B		underdig	underdug	underdug		
B		underdo	underdid	underdone		
B		underdraw	underdrew	underdrawn		
B		underfeed	underfed	underfed		
B		underget	undergot	undegotten		
B		undergird ®	undergirt	undergirt		
A	G3EN	undergo	underwent	undergone	114	
B		undergrow	undergrew	undergrown		
B		underhang	underhung	underhung		
B		underhew ®	underhewed	underhewn		
B		underlay	underlaid	underlaid		
B		underlet	underlet	underlet		
B		underlie	underlay	underlain		
B		underpay	underpaid	underpaid		
B		underrun	underran	underrun		
B		undersell	undersold	undersold		
B		underset	underset	underset		
B		undershoot	undershot	undershot		
B		underspend	underspent	underspent		
A	G2D	understand	understood	understood	44	
B	G3EN	undertake	undertook	undertaken	92	
B		underthrust	underthrust	underthrust		
B		underwrite	underwrote	underwritten		
A	G3EN	undo	undid	undone		
B		undraw	undrew	undrawn		
B		unfreeze	unfroze	unfrozen		
B		ungird	ungirt	ungirt		
B		unhang	unhung	unhung		
B		unhide	unhid	unhidden		
B		unhold	unheld	unheld		
B		unknit ®	unknit	unknit		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
B		unlade ®	unladed	unladen		
B		unlay	unlaid	unlaid		
B		unlearn ®	unlearnt	unlearnt		
B		unmake	unmade	unmade		
B		unreeve ®	unrove	unrove		
B		unsay	unsaid	unsaid		
B		unsell	unsold	unsold		
B		unsew ®	unsewed	unsewn		
B		unsling	unslung	unslung		
B		unspeak	unspoke	unspoken		
B		unspin	unspun	unspun		
B		unstick	unstuck	unstuck		
B		unstring	unstrung	unstrung		
B		unswear	unswore	unsworn		
B		unteach	untaught	untaught		
B		unthink	unthought	unthought		
B		untread	untrod	untrodden		
B		unweave	unwove	unwoven		
B		unwind	unwound	unwound		
B		unwrite	unwrote	unwritten		
B		upbear	upbore	upborn		
B		upbuild	upbuilt	upbuilt		
B		uphold	upheld	upheld		
B		uppercut	uppercut	uppercut		
B		uprise	uprose	uprisen		
B		upsell	upsold	upsold		
A	G1	upset	upset	upset		
B		upspring	upsprang	upsprung		
B		upsweep	upswept	upswept		
B		uptear	uptore	uptorn		
B		vex ®	vext	vext		
A	G3EN	wake ®	woke	woken	89	
B		wax ®	waxed	waxen		
B		waylay	waylaid	waylaid		
A	G3N	wear	wore	worn	52	
A	G3EN	weave	wove	wove(n)	127	
B		webcast	webcast	webcast		
B		wed ®	wed	wed		
A	G2T	weep	wept	wept	125	
B		wend ®	went	went		
A	G1®	wet ®	wet	wet	142	
B		whipsaw ®	whipsawed	whipsawn		
A	G2iUU	win	won	won	58	
A	G2D®	wind ®	wound	wound	113	
B		winterfeed	winterfed	winterfed		
B		wiredraw	wiredrew	wiredrawn		
B		wit	wist	wist		
A	G3WN	withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn	103	
B		withhold	withheld	withheld withholden		
B		withsay ®	withsaid	withsaid		
B		withset ®	withset	withset		
B		withstand	withstood	withstood		
B		wont	wont	wont wonted		
B		work ®	wrought	wrought		
B		worth ®	worth	worth(en)		
B		wrap ®	wrapt	wrapt		
B		wreak ®	wroke	wreaken		

Imp.	Type	I.	II.	III.	Fr.	Translation
				wroken		
A	G2iUU	wring	wrung	wrung	152	
A	G3EN	write	wrote	written	25	
B		writhe ®	wrothe	writhen		
B		zinc	zinc(k)ed	zinc(k)ed		

9.3. 'Last minute' modal use

CAN

ability (general, physical, mental) *Shrek can do many wonderful things.* *The ogre triplets can drink many festering bottles of stinky swamp juice.* *Fiona can outwit Shrek.*
ability associated with the basic senses (Present Continuous meaning) *Now I can see and hear you clearly.*
objective, logical possibility, doubt (50%) *The colonel can be a drunkard.* *If it's Sunday, then the Does can clean their weapons.* *Can Jane have tricked all the thugs?*
occasional possibility *It can be difficult to make Shrek invite all the creatures for Christmas.*
request, offer (colloquial, impolite, see *could, may, might*) *Can you give a lift, please?* *Can it be of any help if I get you a drink?*
impatience, puzzlement *How can you be so absent minded?*
permission, mild command, colloquial (see *could, may, might*) *Can I leave now?* *You can pour me a little vodka...*

CAN'T

logical deduction (100% impossibility, see *must, will*) *John can't speak Catawba. The language died out in the 1940s. (see must)* *Jane can't have left her sunglasses at home. She uses them to cover her face.*
suggestion, advice *Can't we start this grammar from the very beginning? God, no!*

BE ABLE TO

ability (single event, more formal than *can*) *Donkey is able to warm up the Dragon's heart.* *Although the burglars were able to break in, they got trapped.* *The colonel was able to remember his name after two bottles of whisky.* *Jane won't be able to remain undercover if there is a mole.*

COULD

ability (general, tentative–conditional, physical, mental) *Shrek could do many wonderful things if Fiona weren't at home.* *The ogre triplets could drink much more swamp juice.* *Fiona could outwit Shrek from the very beginning.*
ability associated with the basic senses (past meaning) *The colonel could both hear and see the potential intruders from his office.* *No one could hear and see the burglars when they entered.* *John could have heard and seen the burglars as he was awake.*
objective, logical possibility, doubt (50%) *You could be right. Still, could he have eaten all the cake?*

polite request, invitation *Could you possibly show me the way to Far, Far Away?* *You could even join me.* *I don't suppose you could help me, could you?*
desire, not serious wish, instinct, impulse *You see, now I could kill for a cigarette.* *Last night I could have killed for a kiss.*
request, offer *Could you give a lift, please?* *Could it be of any help if call the police?*
mild reproach *Sir, you could drink a little bit less.* *Mum, you could have told me that you know my headmaster...*
impatience, puzzlement *What could the HQ expect from the Does this time?*
permission, milder command *Could I leave now?* *You could pour me a little vodka...* *The colonel could retire at the age of 58 for his merits.*
reported speech *Shrek confessed that he could scary sometimes.*

COULDN'T

impossibility (100%) *The Does couldn't have known about the mole before they returned home.*
logical deduction *The colonel couldn't drink our whisky, as he wasn't even at the party.* *The triplets couldn't have drunk all the swamp juice from the keg.*
suggestion, advice, reproach *Couldn't you give better examples than these?* *Couldn't you have warned us about this test paper sooner?* *You couldn't have eaten my hot-dog, could you?*
informal request *You couldn't lend me a quid, could you?*

BE ALLOWED TO ~ BE PERMITTED TO

permission (see *can, could, may*) *We are allowed to have a break now.* *We were allowed to have a day off last week.* *We will be permitted to leave earlier, if we finish our job.* *She won't be allowed to marry him under any circumstances.*

MAY

permission, official *You may leave now.* *We may have left the office sooner on that occasion.*
request (very polite – more official than *might*; mild suggestion, ironical, humorous) *May I leave now?* *May we express our dissatisfaction concerning our timetable?* *You may be a bit more attentive.* *May I express my utter dissatisfaction concerning your behaviour?*
possibility, speculation (50%) *She may be happy with that man, who knows?* *She may have been the chairman's girl-friend.*
reproach *You may help your mother with the house-hold chores.* *You may have told me that the shop is not open on Saturday.*
ability (passive constructions) *Deer may be found in that forest.*
expressions (concession, indifference, wish – subjunctive) *It may the end of the book, but you should still concentrate.* *Try as he may, he won't understand this grammar.* *We may as well quit this job; it's useless to do it.* *We may as well have gone home, as there's no one here.* *Now, let me explain this, if I may.* *May all your dreams come true!*

MAY NOT

duty, legal / official notice *Children may not be left unattended in this park.*

MIGHT

(over)polite request, more personal than *may* *Might I possibly ask your daughter out tonight?*
ironical, humorous request *Might I possibly ask you two naughty boys to leave this room instantly?*
(over)polite offer, help, mild / casual command *If I might, I can explain the situation.* *We might take a short break, don't you think?*
possibility (less sure than *may*), speculation, dissolved past events *She might be happy with that man. (But I doubt it.)* *It's good you are back. We might have lost our way otherwise.* *You might have failed the test but for the last exercise.*
reproach, admonition, criticism *You might take it slower, the children might get scared.* *The children might have swallowed those Lego pieces, you fool!* *She might not have known what she was doing when she married him.*
very unlikely wish *If I might have the chance to repeat the test paper again…*
expression (concession) *You might be right, but I am the boss!* *Try as he might, he could not overtake the champion.*

MUST

obligation, necessity (internal or rules and regulations, see *have to, need*) *People must eat and drink.* *I must buy some fancy clothes.* *We must hurry, or else we'll be late.* *You must help your friends any time.*
request (casual, emphasised, invitation) *You must see this film.*
logical deduction (100% chance, see *can't*), possibility, probability *This must be the entrance; I can see no other door.* *She must be late because of the traffic.* *She must have been angry when saw him.* *You must be joking.* *The colonel must have been drinking somewhere, as I couldn't see him.*
anger and irony *Whenever I want to relax, you must come with your stupid questions!*
open question (*yes / no* answer, see *need*) *Darling, when I wash the dishes, must I wear an apron?* *Must I be there at 5?*

MUSTN'T

prohibition *You mustn't drink and drive.*
reproach *You mustn't have revealed him our secret.*

HAVE TO, DON'T HAVE TO

obligation, necessity (external, rules, regulations, habitual / permanent duty, see *must*) *We have to survive.* *She has to pay €10 for the ride.* *I will have to prove this theorem next week.*
lack of obligation (see *must, need*) *We don't have to leave so early.* *We didn't have to wake up early, so we stayed in bed until midday.*

HAVE GOT TO

obligation (external, particular situation, colloq. spoken English) *We've got to understand the difference.* *I have got to see the details of the contract.*

HAD TO, DIDN'T HAVE TO

obligation, necessity (past for *must* and *have to*) *"I must / have to be there at 8 o'clock sharp."* *She said she must / had to be there at 8 o'clock sharp.* *She admitted that she had to kill time at the party. (≠ She had time to kill!)* *I had to buy thick clothes in Canada.* *He had to wipe his feet.*
lack of obligation (see *didn't need to*) *We didn't have to pay in advance, so we bought in immediately.*

WILL

future auxiliary for Future tenses ⑨⑩⑪⑫ *I will help you, I promise.* *She will be studying at 5, don't visit her then.* *They will have eaten the grilled chicken by the time we get there.* *At 5 p.m. the colonel will have been drinking his whisky for 12 hours.*
conditional sentence *If you drink this potion, you will get better.*
request (polite, very polite / conditional, less polite / hidden command) *Will you let me pass?* *If you will wait a moment, I will call the manager.* *Help me, will you?* *Just do as I said, will you?*
volition (strong / weak, determination, obstinacy, quick decision / intention) *Whatever happens, I will be there.* *He will drink his daily whisky, no matter what the doctor said.* *If you want me to, I will help you with it.* *Is there a knock at the door? I'll get it.*
order, command *You will do as I say.*
logical deduction (100%, supposition, assumption, probability, hope), see *must, can't* *He will be here any minute as he is already in the lift.* *After a day's hard work, you will be tired and hungry.* *Just let him know, he won't have heard this joke.* *This will be the place she was taking about.* *I think it will snow in the afternoon.* *I hope you will understand my feelings.*
promise, threat (not necessarily serious) *I will never ever do that again!* *You will be punished for that!*
eternal truth, inevitable things, present habit *People will die, but she will stay in the neighbourhood for eternity!* *Shrek will be Shrek.*
question tag for imperative *Kiss me, will you?*
concession *According to Hardy, try as you will, you can't change fate* *Say what you will, but Dickens is not my cup of tea.*

WON'T

refusal (persons, things) *She won't answer my phone calls.* *The window is stuck. It won't open.*
surprise, indignation *Won't you let me pass? Why is that so?*
question tag for imperative *Kiss me, won't you?*

WOULD

auxiliary for *will* in reported speech *He said he would meet me at the café.*
request (less polite than *could*, conditional – very polite, hidden command) *Would you be so kind to help open this bottle?* *Would you mind my interruption?* *Would you like a cup of tea?* *If you would wait a moment, I will call the manager.* *Help we, would you?*
conditional sentences *If George were here, he would drink all the whisky.* *If George had been here, he would have drunk all the whisky.*
past habit, less often now (literary, see *used to*) *At the age of 5 he would sleep on a mattress.*
irony, anger (due to typical bad habit) *He failed the test again. Oh, he would.*
logical deduction, assumption, supposition *They would help us.*
emphasised wish *I wish the English grammar would contain fewer rules!*
expression (wish, preference) *Would to God it were over!* *I would rather stop here.* *I would sooner learn Arabic.* *Sooner than learn this stuff, I would quit.* *I would rather you told me about it.* *I would rather you had told me about it.* *I would just as soon watch a film as watch a play*

WOULDN'T

refusal, insistence (persons, things) *She wouldn't answer my phone calls.* *She wouldn't have helped at all!* *The butter wouldn't melt.*
irony, anger (due to typical bad habit) *She didn't show up. No, she wouldn't.*
logical deduction (100%), assumption, supposition *Shrek wouldn't know how to handle the situation.* *She wouldn't understand their speech, as she doesn't know Dutch.* *George wouldn't have heard the results by then.*
emphasised wish *I wish the English grammar wouldn't contain so many rules!*
expression *I wouldn't know.*

SHALL, SHAN'T

more remote future ability than *will* *You shall make a fine lady (one day).*
strong prohibition *You shall not commit adultery.*
formal regulations, order, command, insistence, law, determination, legal documents *Two guards shall follow the star every-where.* *You shall fire until the last bullet.* *No one shall ever uncover the secret recipe of the chewing gum.*
proposal, offer, suggestion *Shall I close the window?*
more serious promise / threat than *will*, speaker's conviction, indignation *We shall find the way out of this.* *You shall have to give an explanation for this!* *I shall never forget my first day at school.* *I shan't come here again!*
request for opinion *What shall I do now?*
question tag for *Let's…* *Let's stop here, shall we?*
expression (prophecy, prediction) *So shall it ever be!*

SHOULD

prohibition, advice, recommendation, rule, order (weaker than *ought to*) *You should never be late for school.* *You shouldn't hang out with those triplets.* *You should learn more.* *Students should wear a uniform.*
ask for advice *What should I do now? Should I stay or should I go?*
reproach, criticism *We should have been told the news yesterday.* *You should always tell the truth!*
logical deduction *He should show up now, as I saw him enter the building.*
astonishment, malignancy, surprise, disappointment, anger *What should I see but Shrek and the triplets!* *How (on earth) should I know?*
assumption (less sure than *will*), opinion, conditional – highly improbable *The plane should land any minute.* *The plane should be landing in two minutes.* *The plane shouldn't have landed in the dense fog.* *She should have told him the password, as he is using her computer.* *If you should see him, tell him that I miss him.*
subjunctive *It is important that we should talk about us now.*
expression *He learnt everything for the test lest he should fail.*

OUGHT TO

advice, suggestion (stronger than *should*) *We ought to see each other more often.* *You should / ought to keep your mouth shut.*
moral advice, desirability, obligation *We ought to respect the rules.* *I think we ought to have helped her.*
reproach, prohibition *The colonel ought to drink less.* *The colonel ought to have left a little whisky for us as well.*
logical deduction (expectation, see *must, will, can't*) *They ought to arrive at 5.* *They ought to have arrived home by now.*

NEED

necessity (affirmative) *We need to check the oil in the engine.*
lack of necessity (negative) *We needn't hurry this time.* *We need never worry about our future, seize the day!* *I need hardly tell you that we are hard up these days.*
strong doubt *I wonder if we need learn all these examples of modals.*
irritation, habit, hoping for a negative answer (see *must*) *Need I think about marriage at my age?* *Need we hurry all the time?*
criticism, ironic remark, something done unnecessarily (see *didn't need to*) *She needn't have worried about it after all, as he was as right as rain.* *You needn't have brought your problem here. We have ours.*
require, necessary (passive voice) *The pipes need checking.*
weak verb *I need a rest after all these modals.* *Do you need anything from the shop?* *We don't need to sleep on the floor.*
(expression PV3) *Everybody needs to take a rest from time to time.*

DIDN'T NEED TO

lack of obligation (not required, consequently not done) *I didn't need to hurry so I walked home. (= didn't have to)* I went to the party as I didn't need an invitation. They didn't need to tell me the whole story.

DARE

courage, impudence *I dare not call the manager, as he is an angry man.* *He daren't have come earlier unless you asked him to.*

How dare you talk to me like that?
weak verb (similar meaning to modal *dare*) *I don't dare upset him.* *They dared to call me a liar!*
expression (probability) *I dare say you must be joking.*

[AIW] TO

scheduled program, plan, future arrangement *I am to meet my in-laws at the airport.* *They are to arrive any minute.*
arrangements not carried out *We were to have met at the airport but their plane landed elsewhere.* *They were to perform tonight, but the star fled with the usherette.*
order, command, obligation, prohibition, (formal) instruction (see *must, mustn't*) *You are to stay there until I come back. (see must, mustn't)* *The pupils were not to leave the room be-fore the break.* *The doc says I am not to smoke any more.*
ask for advice (see *shall, should*) *What am I to do with all these modals?* *Where am I to start searching for her?*
funny, ironic remark *Am I to marry her?* *What am I to do with you now?*
reported command *"What shall I do now?" He asks what he is to do now.*
advice, suggestion, 'pre-condition' *If you are to understand this grammar, you'd better take it seriously.*
daydreaming *If you were to marry an old millionaire, what would you do?*
inevitable things, destiny *Although we separated for good, we were to bump into each other in May.*

BE BOUND TO

logical deduction (100% sure, future for *must*) *She is bound to become a star if she goes to Hollywood.* *They are bound to commit the same mistake forever.*

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